
SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Today's Books

For The Social Studies

Intermediate Grades

Tepee Days and Trapper Days

Hunkins and Allen

Tepee Days is a book of authentic stories about the animals and Indians of the Great Plains. These stories of Indian culture provide an appreciation of early Western life which children will adore. *Trapper Days* is an historically accurate and vivid portrayal of the true pioneers who opened up the great plains country and the Rocky Mountain plateaus. The importance of these books in the social studies is great because they furnish authentic material about early American life.

Juarez of Mexico

Stratton and Wilson

A simple, vivid story of the life of Benito Juarez, Mexico's national hero, which presents a graphic, interesting account of his great services to his country. In this human, swiftly-moving narrative the American pupil will see the stirring devotion of this great patriot to the cause of Mexican freedom and democracy.

Our South American Neighbors

Frances Carpenter

This is a new style geography reader about the fundamental relationships between the various South American countries and the United States. An "overview" is gained from an airplane trip

all over the continent, taken by children, so that they learn geography from a new angle. The histories, people, rivers, cities, climates, and basic products are discussed in the appealing Carpenter manner. Constant comparison between the North and South American countries keeps the child oriented. The exciting stories of the heroes and their early activities in pioneering are thrilling to children.

This America

Wilson, Bowman and King

This America presents the high school student with the facts about this country which not only will enthrall him but make him proud of his heritage and give him a keen wish to protect it. This presentation is the new, modern approach to American history, civics, and geography—integrating the social studies.

Problems of a Changing Social Order

Gillette and Reinhardt

The purpose of this new, elementary text is to increase the student's understanding of all social problems, to detect the cause of maladjustment, to predict future trends, and to assist the student to see how these trends may be controlled intelligently. It is the type of book that the teacher will recommend for supplementary reading so it should be in the library and available to all students.

American Book Company

NEW YORK CINCINNATI CHICAGO BOSTON ATLANTA DALLAS SAN FRANCISCO

Editor's Page

The Stream of Stamps

TO THE EDITOR:

IN A recent issue under the title, "Suggested: A Stream of Stamps," you reprinted a letter from Dr. Howard E. Wilson in which he proposed that SOCIAL EDUCATION start a campaign for contributions to the National Council for the Social Studies in the form of war stamps. That seems to me to be an excellent idea.

The call for leadership in meeting the challenge to civic education in the present crisis places an important responsibility squarely upon the shoulders of the Council. There are many ways in which we plan to bring the full resources of our organization to bear in contributing to the total war effort. Two very significant publications are well under way. A resource bulletin, *Paying for the War*, prepared under the auspices of the National Council for the Social Studies for the United States Treasury Department, is already completed and will be distributed to members this fall. Another publication in our Curriculum Series is being prepared to deal with needed curriculum changes necessitated by problems of war and of the post-war world. Other publications are planned.

As you well know, after paying the cost of free distribution of the annual yearbook, SOCIAL EDUCATION, and bulletins, there remains little of each membership fee with which to meet possible emergencies. With increasing costs of labor and materials the real value of our membership fees will be less than ever before.

The patriotic duty of every American is clear. If we are to win this war—and we will—we must support the total effort in every way possible. The nation-wide reaction to the War Stamps Campaign has been most encouraging but must continue as a buttress against inflation and post-war depression.

If every member would contribute just a fraction of the amount which the services of the organization are worth to him, perhaps one twenty-five cent stamp each, it would serve a worthy patriotic cause and would guarantee our

continued extension of aids to teachers.

Enclosed are four more twenty-five cent stamps to add to those already received. I hope you are receiving many similar contributions to continue the "stream of stamps" for civic education.

ROY A. PRICE

Wartime Obligations

BOTH education as a whole and the social studies in particular have a responsibility for the making of good citizens. Most of what we teach in peacetime must also be taught in time of war—history, geography, civics, economics are essential parts of the background of competent citizens in any period.

Nevertheless, the war does give rise to needs which education and the social studies can and must help to meet. Six programs have already appeared. The programs concern:

1. Consideration of the background and issues of the war, and of the war aims of the United States and the United Nations.
2. Cooperation in meeting wartime emergencies in such areas as the financing of the war through taxation and loans; control of inflation, wages, and prices; conservation of food, rubber, gasoline, clothing, metals, and electricity; minimum demand on services when all available manpower is needed for wartime production; acceptance of censorship; and participation in civilian war activities, such as civilian defense, collection of scrap, skill in first aid and nursing, and participation in Red Cross work, and maintenance of health.
3. Preliminary education for military service, in such lines as mathematics, physics, chemistry, and aviation.
4. Development of better geographical knowledge and understanding, in relation to the fronts of the war and the implications of airpower for both wartime and peacetime.
5. The development of better international understanding—of Latin America, the Far East, the British Empire, and Russia and Africa.
6. The problems, issues, and proposals for a

satisfactory post-war settlement that can realize our war aims and preserve the victory in which we are making a heavy investment of blood, money, effort, and sacrifice.

TO these programs we have already devoted considerable space. Each issue during this school year will also be concerned with them. We shall be glad to report outstanding efforts to deal with these programs in the classrooms of the country.

ERLING M. HUNT

More American History?

OUR wars have always stimulated interest in American history and in education for patriotic citizenship. Not only have classroom teachers modified their teaching and authors their textbooks in wartime, but state legislatures have often been stimulated to enact laws requiring that American history and civics be taught, and setting up requirements or restrictions affecting the curriculum, or teachers, or both.

It is not surprising, then, that recently we have heard loud demands that all states enact legislation requiring that American history be taught, or that our colleges have been sharply criticized because they fail to require all students to study American history. Plausible and undoubtedly sincere as these demands are, they need more critical examination than they have so far received.

PROFESSOR NEVINS' BLAST

IN THE *New York Times Magazine* of May 3, 1942, Professor Allan Nevins of Columbia University published a short article on "American History for Americans," a nationalistic and not very well-informed demand that state legislatures, school superintendents, and college heads take such action that all pupils and students be required to study American history.

Professor Nevins points out that the war makes especially obvious the necessity that all American citizens, an increasing proportion of whom have attended or are attending high school and college, be well-grounded in American history. With that basic proposition, none need quarrel.

Professor Nevins goes on to assert that "our young people are all too ignorant of American history when they leave high school or even college." From that conclusion it is, unfortunately, also difficult to dissent. But Professor Nevins' illustrations are interesting:

They know something of Alexander Hamilton, but are not quite sure of Albert Gallatin; they have heard of Harriet Beecher Stowe but not Hinton R. Helper; they can identify Horace Greeley but not Edwin L. Godkin. They frequently lack any clear perception of chronology; they are uncertain whether Polk came before Pierce, Irving before Herman Melville, or McCormick before Alexander Graham Bell. Their understanding of causality is limited. They may know something about the Stamp Act but not the Molasses Act in the events preceding the Revolution; something about the Dred Scott decision but nothing of the tariff of 1857 in the events preceding the Civil War. . . .

Do such items constitute the essentials of American history? Undoubtedly college and high school teachers of American history should keep up on such details, but one wonders whether even specialists in others fields of history or social science would be comfortable in a quiz session concerned with such information. In any case the purpose of instruction in the history of our country is scarcely met by mere drilling on such factual data.

Of course the ignorance of adults—and youth—goes far beyond the not very horrifying examples used by Professor Nevins. Yet such ignorance is by no means confined to those who have not studied American history. Few indeed are the graduates of American high schools who have not taken courses and studied textbooks in which such elementary data have been included. Professor Nevins makes the very obvious error of confusing the mere taking of courses with the process of learning—an error repeated by those who have subsequently joined the campaign that he started. He—and they—go on to assume that the ignorance of American history which we all deplore lies in the *quantity* of teaching that is done, that it can be remedied by simple statutory requirements. The diagnosis is wrong. The difficulty lies rather in the *quality* of our American history teaching.

PROFESSOR Nevins has found, apparently in Victor Brudney's "Legislative Regulation of the Social Studies in Secondary Schools," published in the *Ninth Yearbook of School Law*, a summary of state laws on the teaching of constitutions, history, and civics. Finding that twenty-six states require by law the teaching of American history in secondary schools, Professor Nevins does not inquire as to whether graduates in those states know American history as well as they ought, but reproaches the other twenty-two states for scandalous neglect of duty: "That half of the States should have little or no formal requirement . . . is a subject for inquiry, reproach and action."

This time Professor Nevins confuses statutory requirements with actual practice. The fact is that state laws simply reinforce the even stronger influence of general practice. Every high school in the country offers American history. If state and local legislation is lacking, school administrators enforce a requirement that such legislation could scarcely make stronger. Few indeed are the graduates of public high schools—and almost as few the graduates of private schools—who have not studied American history in at least one year of senior high school. Professor Nevins, and those who have followed his lead, have ignored local requirements, the extremely influential reports of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association (1899) and of the Committee on the Social Studies of the NEA Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1916), and the general practice of American secondary schools.

They have also failed to note that in many communities American history is taught once in the intermediate grades—sometimes for three years; that it is very frequently taught again in the seventh and eighth grades, that the universal senior high school survey is usually the second or even third study of the field, and that this senior high school survey is now often supplemented in the twelfth grade by a course in Problems of American Democracy. They also ignore the fact that increasing attention has been given to American literature, which is, like history, a source of that unity and patriotism which Professor Nevins and the rest of us desire to have developed.

STATE requirements are beside the point. Actually more American history is taught in elementary and secondary schools than any state law requires. Nor are state laws any safe guide as to whether the Constitution is taught or not. Professor Nevins, in somewhat naïvely praising the Chicago pattern, describes the usual pattern in American communities. There is simply no foundation for his assertion that:

... in other great systems [than Chicago] a little American history is interjected into a course in "social studies," confusedly and halfheartedly. In still others it is taught as a hasty pendant to world history. Probably the majority of American children never receive the equivalent of a full year's careful work in our national history.

That is uninformed and irresponsible; every statement is untrue. Social studies is a group of subjects one of which, both at the junior and the senior high school levels, is American history. "Confusedly and halfheartedly" is gratuitous,

and probably less true than of any other social studies subject. American history is never "a hasty pendant to world history"; it is a separate—probably too separate—full-year course. And if American children fail to receive "the equivalent of a full year's careful work in our national history" it is because they do not stay in school—unless Professor Nevins wishes to quibble over his adjective "careful."

WE NEED *Better* TEACHING

THE sad and really serious fact is that the campaign on which Professor Nevins and those who have followed him have started may defeat the very purpose they sincerely have in mind—that is, the better understanding of American history by those who go through our schools and colleges. That understanding needs to be developed, and can be developed, but not by spending energy in drives for unneeded laws.

As Professor Nevins indicates, American history has been steadily increasing in amount, and broadening in scope. Research has added new information and new interpretations; "social, economic, and psychological elements have been explored in new fashions. . . . As history has lengthened our study of it has also grown broader, deeper and more mature." Precisely. And our school textbooks, in recognition of the fact, have doubled in length in the past twenty-five years. And one reason why our history is poorly learned is that we are trying to teach more than can be absorbed. Professor Nevins and other specialists in American history could help by trying to determine what history is of most worth. It is not likely to be the kind of items already quoted from his article.

Meanwhile, as Professor Nevins also points out, "an increasing part of the youth of the land now remains in the classroom until high school has been completed—and the day is not distant when practically all will so remain." That means, however, that an increasing number of pupils must be taught who have less academic ability—less ability to deal with abstract material, less ability to learn from the printed page, less intellectual interest—than in days when high school students were a select group. These new recruits need pictures, motion pictures, narrative and descriptive treatments—and, again, we need to know what is the minimum for which they should be held. Furthermore, as college enrolments increase, more college professors need to recognize their obligation to teach rather than merely to provide an opportunity for learning.

WHAT CAN BE DONE?

BOTH the increased amount and scope of American history and the coming of less academically competent students have implications for teacher selection and training. Part of the responsibility for inadequate learning rests with low professional requirements and the casual appointing of untrained teachers to history and social studies positions. College and university history departments have responsibilities that they have not faced. Courses in history alone do not adequately prepare those who will teach history; professional programs for teachers should include literature, government, economics, sociology—the list could be further extended—as well as history. More professors need to realize that a series of lectures punctuated by one or two examinations on a mass of information is, again, not good professional preparation for teachers, either in schools or colleges. Some guidance as to what is important, some systematic attention to primary and secondary accounts, some training in historical method are needed—and too often omitted. Teachers colleges and schools of education have faced the new problems of secondary schools far better than have liberal arts and graduate-school faculties, whose assistance is, however, badly needed. The responsibilities of professors of American history, then, are not discharged entirely by collaborating in the writing of textbooks, though important contributions have been made in that way. But it may be suggested that there are opportunities for constructive work nearer to college campuses than are the lobbies of most state capitols.

ONE further observation should be made on the demand for further requirements that was made by Professor Nevins, repeated by Benjamin Fine in the *New York Times* of Sunday, June 21, and widely echoed around the country in the weeks that have followed. The statistics used are misleading, for they deal with requirements rather than with enrolments or actual achievement. But the statistics conceal a situation that is far more serious than the bogey which they erect.

Actually bad teaching of history, often protected by state or local requirements, has resulted in widespread dislike of history. The Regents' Inquiry in New York State found that able students tend to avoid history¹—obviously a reflection on the teaching in the American history

which they are required to take. Professor Harper in Illinois found that a substantial number of pupils "dislike history."² It is, again, not the quantity but the kind and the quality of history that we teach that needs attention.

If professors of American history, wish to develop better appreciation of our nation's past, they can help determine what should be taught and help prepare materials suitable to the various needs of our now unselected high school population. If educational associations and school administrators wish to strengthen the teaching of American history, they can profitably direct their attention to professional standards, to the appointment of qualified teachers, and to the providing of adequate teaching materials. If civic and patriotic organizations and newspapers wish to lend their support to the development of sound patriotism and citizenship through the study of American history and civics, they can support teachers and administrators in efforts to obtain and use courses of study and teaching materials representative of the best thinking of experts in American history and government, and of the best available materials for our varied school population.

And the colleges, now under pressure from various well-intentioned patriotic and civic groups, should view hasty blanket requirements with suspicion. Work done in elementary and secondary schools not only in American history but in Civics, Problems of American Democracy, and American literature, should be taken into account. So ought college offerings in American literature, and in government, economics, and sociology. History is no longer, as Professor Nevins and the *New York Times* imply, the only source of understanding and appreciation of American traditions, and institutions, or the only source of patriotism and national unity. Legislation and faculty requirements, after all, seem scarcely the most effective or the most appropriate means of promoting study of a field so vital, so stimulating, and so rewarding as is American history.

ERLING M. HUNT

Government Publications, and Pamphlets

Mr. Brown's department on Government Publications, and Pamphlets, omitted this month, will appear in the November issue.

²Charles A. Harper, "Why Do Children Dislike History?" *SOCIAL EDUCATION*, October, 1937, pp. 492-494.

¹Howard E. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938).

Peace with Victory

James A. Storing

WE WON the war but lost the peace." How frequently during the years since 1920 has this pronouncement reflected the disillusionment that followed the last war. The world was not made "safe" for much of anything, least of all "democracy." Not five years after the treaties were signed, democratic government gave way to autocracy in Italy. Since then, both nationally and internationally, democracy has been in retreat. Only now are the democratic forces engaged in a titanic struggle to turn retreat into positive, offensive action. This time we must not only win the war but also the peace that will follow.

In order to insure a peace *with* victory it will be necessary to build a workable system of world organization. The need for such an organization is obvious. The independent nation-state is no longer able to cope with the problems arising out of an advanced technology. Economic maladjustments and recurring wars have been the inevitable results of the failure to provide supernational machinery for the solution of supernational problems.

Our enemies in this present war are fully aware of these needs. They recognize the utter futility of continuing a system of cut-throat competition among small, economically dependent nation-states. "Europe must be unified under German domination," argues the Nazi geopolitician, "and regionalism must replace nationalism throughout the world." "East Asia can not continue to be governed by weak, nominally independent states," argues the Nipponese militarist, "but must be organized as a single economic unit." Both the German and the Japanese planner would concede places to Britain and America in their new orders, but this concession would be, at best, temporary. The dynamic tendencies inherent in both Nazism and Japanese militaristic fascism

would, if these movements continued to succeed, eventually result in the complete domination of Britain and America by their victorious rivals. This is a gruesome prospect, and it is small consolation to insist that the logically final step in this our enemies' drive toward world "order" would be a clash between the two overlords—Germany and Japan. Complete chaos or tyranny on a world-wide scale are the alternative prospective results of such a struggle. Neither is pleasant to contemplate, and neither will permanently solve the problem of world order.

The other solution—democratic world organization—depends for its establishment upon two things: a complete United Nations' victory in the present war, and an honest desire on the part of democratic peoples to inaugurate a workable system of world government. The first prerequisite, although by no means easy of accomplishment, will be provided by the determination of the freedom-loving people of the world. Of the second, it is unfortunately not so easy to be certain. The problems are many—isolationist nationalism must be broken down, provincial, economic self-interest must be tempered, and agreements must be reached on plans for political and administrative machinery.

LESSONS OF THE LEAGUE

SOME attempts were made to solve these problems after the last war through the establishment of the League of Nations. To be sure, the League failed, but the very fact that attempts were made to establish organs of international government indicate that the need for a greater degree of international cooperation was recognized. And this is of paramount importance. Structural weaknesses can be remedied once the idea of limiting national sovereignty is accepted. And some progress—not much, to be sure—was made toward the acceptance of this idea through experience with the League.

The weaknesses of the League of Nations have been glaringly obvious since Hitler's rise to power in 1933. The very fact that it was a loose league, not a strong federation, meant that ultimate sovereignty still resided in the member states. They could give as much or as little sup-

The struggle for peace will have to be continued after the guns cease firing. This thoughtful discussion of problems, proposals, and obstacles is contributed by an assistant professor of political science at Colgate University.

port to the League as suited their immediate purposes. The central organs of the League were clumsily organized and not vested with the necessary independent coercive power. They were completely dependent, in the final analysis, upon the individual member states. Such an arrangement is intolerable and doomed to failure, particularly in periods of great stress.¹

Another reason for the failure of the League of Nations is closely related to the first. Some member states, notably Britain and France, used the League as an instrument for obtaining selfish, nationalistic advantages. Thus the League became an agency for the preservation of the *status quo*, since change was generally not favored by the former Allies. They hoped that the international machinery would freeze the post-war settlements, since only thus could their advantages be maintained.

The failure of the United States to join the League has often been cited as one of the outstanding reasons for its lack of success. Undoubtedly the prestige and power of the United States as a member would have greatly enhanced the position of the League. But the fundamental weakness—lack of adequate limitations on national sovereignty—would still have been present.

It is this weakness that should ever be in the minds of the planners of the future world order. Its importance can not be overemphasized. It matters little, at least in the early stages, how some structural details are arranged if only an agreement can be reached to curtail nationalistic powers for the larger social advantages of world order. Good structural forms will work poorly if men are not agreed on the need for limiting national sovereignty; weak forms may work well if men are in agreement on the ends desired.

GUIDES TO A NEW SETTLEMENT

THERE are, however, certain fundamental principles and practices that should be observed by the builders of the post-war world organization. In the first place, the final, definitive peace conference for drawing plans for the post-war settlement and the new international organization should be postponed for some time after the cessation of hostilities. This will serve several useful purposes. It will give time for wartime animosities to cool and thus enable a more reasonable, less vindictive, attitude to prevail. Moreover, there will be a host of economic and

¹ For a discussion of the weakness of leagues, see Clarence Streit, *Union Now* (shorter version. New York: Harper, 1940), pp. 92-118.

social problems that will require immediate attention after the war. People will have to be fed, clothed, housed, and in some cases hospitalized; armies will need to be demobilized and industries and transportation facilities refitted and given an opportunity to make the shift to peacetime production. All of this can not wait upon the deliberations of a peace conference, but will need to be done immediately after the war. Unified agencies of the United Nations must assume the responsibilities for this post-war rehabilitation.

A second principle that must prevail once the formal peace conference has convened has been guaranteed, implicitly at least, by the Atlantic Charter. The vanquished peoples must not be unduly penalized. This does not mean, however, that there will be no need for a transitional period during which some of the enemy territory will have to be occupied and policed. But opportunities to adjust their post-war economies through access to raw materials and markets should be allowed all peoples. This may not be a popular principle, particularly after a long, sanguinary struggle. But only through its application can a permanent world order be established. Although it may not be possible to include Germany, Italy, and Japan within the international organization established immediately after the war, steps should be taken looking toward their inclusion after the tyrannies in these countries shall have disappeared.

THE acceptance of some form of federalism is another requisite of a sound post-war program of world organization. As Clarence Streit has well argued, a revived League will not be sufficient; it is powerless in the face of the great problems to be solved. Only through a federal system, with independent spheres of power granted to central and member-state governments, can sufficient strength be guaranteed the world organization to insure its success.

The employment of the federal principle will give rise to two important sets of problems—first, those dealing with the division of power between the federation and the nation-states composing it, and second, those rather difficult problems surrounding the establishment of appropriate governmental machinery. This is not the place for a comprehensive examination of these matters. Suffice it to say that the powers given to the federation should be adequate, including at least power to tax and borrow money, and control over external affairs, military and naval

establishments, citizenship, and commerce. Streit includes several others, and Professor Jennings² goes even further by granting the federation more or less direct control over certain economic matters. If the American federal formula is used to divide the powers, those not given to the federation will be reserved to the nation-states. That these powers will be numerous and extremely important goes without saying; the nation-state will still have the greater and, in many respects, the most important share of the governmental responsibilities. Indeed, only those powers necessary to make the union function properly should be given to the federal government.

Concerning governmental structure there is considerable divergence of opinion among the planners. Streit models his proposed government upon the American plan, except that he substitutes a plural for the single executive and makes provision for a premier to exercise the real executive responsibilities. Jennings favors the orthodox parliamentary plan; he would install an elective nominal executive and make the cabinet responsible to parliament. At present, at least, details should not be allowed to confuse the issue; they of necessity may have to be arrived at through compromise. It is important, however, to agree on one thing—the government of the federation must be independent and subject to change only through the orderly processes of constitutional amendments. To insure complete independence the federation should be given adequate powers to raise revenue and borrow money; it should not be financially dependent upon the generosity of its member nation-states.³

A FINAL principle that must be observed by the builders of the post-war world organization is fairly obvious, i.e., allowance must be made for growth. No one, not even the most cheerful optimist, envisions a full-grown world state after the present war. Rather, most of the experts look for comparatively limited beginnings. Streit originally confined his plan to the democracies of 1939 and later limited it, temporarily at least, to a union between Great Britain and the United States. Others have advocated federations for western Europe, eastern Europe, the Americas, east Asia, and the Near East. If

regional federations are established, the way should be left open for their expansion and for their affiliation in a larger federation of federations. Here again the mechanical structure of government is only important as far as it provides the federations with the necessary independence of action.

DANGERS AND OBSTACLES

ANY advocate of plans for a strong international organization is immediately confronted by a battery of troublesome questions and a host of perplexing problems. Will any plan for an ordered world be able to withstand the ravages of post-war disillusionment? How can the potency of nationalism be overcome? Won't the structural divergencies that exist in the various plans make agreement on a constitution impossible? If in the beginning the federation included only a few members, or if regional federations develop, won't the balance of power problem reappear, this time on an even larger scale? These and many other questions demand convincing answers if the cause of improved international organization is to succeed.

In general these questions can be partially answered by pointing realistically to the alternative to world organization: disastrous wars in every generation. Some way must be found to organize the world for peace. A sacrifice of some degree of national sovereignty is indeed a small price to pay for international security.

The objections should, however, be answered specifically. What of post-war disillusionment? Will it wreck any attempt at establishing super-national government? That it played a part in wrecking the League of Nations, particularly in America, is a fact that can not be overlooked. Postponement of the establishment of final plans until after the war hysteria has subsided may partly offset the effects of the disillusionment.⁴ A constant educational campaign prior to the cessation of hostilities, in which the danger is frankly recognized, may prepare public opinion for the inevitable disillusionment that will follow the war.

The strength of nationalistic sentiment has always been the most important single stumbling block in the path of any plan for international government. That it has not been weakened by the present war can be unmistakably observed by

²W. Ivor Jennings, *A Federation for Western Europe* (New York: Macmillan, 1940). Pp. 118-150.

³Arnold Brecht offers some thought-provoking suggestions for governmental structure in his article "European Federation—The Democratic Alternative," *Harvard Law Review*, February, 1942, pp. 561-594.

⁴On this and other points in connection with postponing definitive action after the war, see Lewis L. Lorwin, *Economic Consequences of the Second World War* (New York: Random House, 1942).

surveying the list of refugee governments now operating in London.

TWO rather timorous observations are advanced in the hope that they may partly answer the stubborn critic who insists that the religion of nationalism will wreck any proposed international federation. In the first place, are we altogether certain that the division of sentiment on pending issues before the federation government will be made on national lines? Is it not more than remotely possible that the division may be functional or economic in nature? If certain artificial props to national economies, such as high tariffs, are removed by the adoption of a regional or a world federation, is it not reasonable to assume that one might find British, French, and Danish farmers pitted in political battle against British, French, and Danish industrialists? In fact, American experience would lead us to believe that such would be the case. The bogey of large-state domination, thought so important by small-state delegates at the Philadelphia Convention in 1787, failed to materialize. States as such seldom oppose each other in the political struggles in the national Congress. Rather, the political wars are fought between interests that are not confined by state boundaries. Perhaps this would also be the case if federalism were carried to the international level.

There is another, quite different, proposition that should be considered in this connection. Is it not possible that the vigorous political nationalism which is now such an impediment to internationalist movements may give way, as the logic of events becomes irresistible, to a highly desirable kind of cultural nationalism? In fact, were there not many indications that exactly this change was taking place in Europe before the outbreak of the present war? Illustrations could be drawn from the experience of many of the small, so-called neutral countries. In Norway, for instance, no attempt was made to implement political nationalism through the only tool available for its protection in the pre-war world—armed might. On the other hand, there was a definite movement to strengthen cultural nationalism through linguistic and literary reforms calculated to remove Danish influences from the Norwegian language and restore old Norse usages. To be sure, this movement has been confined largely to the small states of Europe. But if the futility of international anarchy can be demonstrated, does it not offer a chan-

nel into which the nationalistic sentiment of the larger countries can also run?

LESS important than the hazard of nationalism to post-war supernational government will be the divergences of opinion on the type of government to be established. If, however, democratic peoples are convinced of the needs for organization, ways and means can be found to settle most of the important differences through compromise. Obviously this may mean that the large states, and particularly the United States, must be prepared to make concessions. It is practically inevitable that the resulting compromises will not be completely satisfactory to all. Moreover, the structural forms when first established may be clumsy and perhaps even inefficient. But if the general principle of limiting national sovereignty is not sacrificed in the negotiations, the structural forms can be improved after experience with them demonstrates the need.

One of the most frequent objections raised to Streit's plan for a union of democracies is that such a plan would only enlarge the former balance of power struggles and lead eventually to wars, civil and international. It must be admitted that this is a grave danger. Streit answers it in part by pointing to the immense store of resources possessed by the democracies; no one would dare attack them. Perhaps a more naïve answer would emphasize the acceptance by democratic peoples of the need for compromise. But armed conflicts, especially, internal struggles, may not be avoided completely through intelligent compromise in a federated world order. Most modern states have had to undergo armed civil disturbances at one time or another. Even the American federation, strong as it was thought to be after 1815, was subjected to a rigorous test as a result of economic and constitutional differences that finally led to civil war. Admitting the worst, then, and agreeing that internal armed conflicts can not be avoided, does this mean that the entire program for world organization should be abandoned without trial? Emphatically, no. It is not to be expected that the international federation can avoid all the growing pains encountered by nation states in their youth. And it is possible that a world federation may, following the American pattern, emerge stronger after a civil conflict.

It should be obvious from the foregoing discussion that the problems confronting the architects of the new world order, although difficult, are not insoluble. No social, economic, or po-

litical change can be made without disposing of difficult obstacles. But once the need for change has been demonstrated even the most troublesome obstacles can be removed. The need for strong world organization was demonstrated in 1914 and re-emphasized during the decades that followed. By now intelligent people should be convinced of the futility of continuing a system of international organization that has so convincingly demonstrated its gross inadequacy.

SUGGESTED BOOKS

- Burnham, James. *The Managerial Revolution*. New York: John Day, 1941. Burnham examines the role of the managerial class in the future social order. His ideas are challenging and should be weighed by every serious student of political, social, and economic problems.
- Curry, W. B. *The Case for Federal Union*. New York: Federal Union, 1940. This is an argument for Union Now proposed by a British publicist.
- Jennings, W. Ivor. *A Federation for Western Europe*. New York: Macmillan, 1940. A plea and a well-worked-out plan for a European federation by a professor of law at the University of London. Although many interesting problems of governmental structure are considered, the author does not confine himself to legalistic sketching; he is completely aware of the economic problems involved.
- Lorwin, Lewis L. *Economic Consequences of the Second World War*. New York: Random House, 1942. A brilliant appraisal of post-war economic and political problems.
- Munroe, David Hoadley. *Hang Together: The Union Now Primer*. New York: Federal Union, 1940. A concise (100 pages), readable statement of Union Now principles, with a foreword and a final chapter by Clarence K. Streit. A brief sketch describing the organization of Federal Union, with membership lists of some of the councils and committees, is included.
- De Sales, Raoul de Roussy. *The Making of Tomorrow*. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1942. This book should become a best-seller. Although De Sales makes a plea for ordered democracy, he does not engage in the type of generalized evangelism so frequently found in books of this type. His is an orderly, clear-cut approach to post-war problems and proposed solutions. He is realist enough to be fully aware that social, no less than personal, problems may never be completely solved.
- Streit, Clarence K. *Union Now*. New York: Harper, 1939.

Streit's proposal of a union of democracies set forth in this book was dismissed by many as fantastic in 1939. In the last two years, however, the idea, if not the minute details outlined in the book, has won many converts. One can not talk intelligently of post-war world organization without understanding Streit's plan. There are two editions of the book—the first, regular edition published in 1939, and a shorter version published in 1940.

Streit, Clarence K. *Union Now With Great Britain*. New York: Harper, 1941. Principles outlined in *Union Now* are restated and applied to a proposed immediate union with Great Britain. The illustrative constitution included in *Union Now* is reprinted with necessary changes. A chapter devoted exclusively to questions and answers is included.

SUGGESTED ARTICLES

- Brecht, Arnold. "European Federation—The Democratic Alternative." *Harvard Law Review*, LV (February, 1942), pp. 561-594. An excellent brief statement of a plan for European federation, containing many refreshingly original features.
- Dulles, John Foster. "Peace Without Platitudes." *Fortune*, XXV (January, 1942), pp. 42ff. The title of this article well expresses its central theme. Winning the war will be small comfort, argues Dulles, if it means a restoration of the discredited pre-war international arrangements.
- Laski, Harold. "Nationalism and the Future of Civilization." *The Danger of Being a Gentleman*. New York: Viking, 1940. A superb essay written by a master essayist that leaves the argument for nationalism badly mutilated. The fact that Laski wrote this essay long before the outbreak of the present war makes it especially worth studying.
- Nash, Vernon. "The Case for Federal Union." *Christian Century*, LVII (April 17, 1940), pp. 506-508. A well-written, brief argument in favor of Streit's plan.
- "Union of the English-Speaking Democracies Now?" *Reader's Digest*, XXXIX (July, 1941), pp. 77-86. A summary of the pros and cons on the question of an English-speaking union now.
- Whitelaw, M. Menzies. "The Prospect for a Union of Democracies." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXVIII (November, 1941), pp. 132-140. Professor Whitelaw (University of Saskatchewan) is critical of Union Now, fears that it won't work. Suggestions for installing federalism in the British Commonwealth of Nations have always been met with disfavor.

In the concept of the four freedoms, in the basic principles of the Atlantic Charter, we have set for ourselves high goals, unlimited objectives.

These concepts, these principles, are designed to form a world in which men, women and children can live in freedom and in equity and, above all, without fear of the horrors of war. For no soldiers or sailors, in any of our forces today, would so willingly endure the rigors of battle if they thought that in another twenty years their own sons would be fighting still another war on distant deserts, or seas, or in faraway jungles, or in the skies (PRESIDENT FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT. Delivered before the International Students' Assembly, Washington, D.C., September 3, 1942).

Youth in Wartime

I. James Quillen

THE war has changed the position of youth in American culture. During the 1930's millions of youth were drifting aimlessly, out of work and out of school, apparently unneeded and unwanted by the adults who did the work and ruled the land. The sad fact was that year after year the machine had been decreasing the need for the labor of youth. Humanitarianism and legal restrictions reinforced the trends of the economy, and youth became, to a large extent, closed off from adult work except on the farm, in the village, and in a few rare urban homes. The great majority of young people looked ahead to an uncertain future. This lack of participation hampered the development of self-confidence, reinforced incipient feelings of inferiority, and filled many of them with frustration and anxiety.

The march of Hitler's armies began to change all this in 1939. The passage of the Selective Service Act in 1940 marked a dramatic change in the status of American youth. Simultaneously came a demand for an expanded labor force to produce materials needed under the Lend-Lease Act and the defense program. Appropriations made were such as to demand an addition to the working force of the United States of six million men by the end of 1942. Hence the army, the navy, and industry all began to demand the participation of youth in the defense of the nation.

The attack on Pearl Harbor and the declaration of war against America by Germany and Italy completed our involvement in the world conflict. Now the demands for the life and labor of youth have become urgent and all-embracing. The armed forces are expanding with all possible speed and the only limitation placed on the production of goods required for the war is the availability of human labor, ingenuity, machines,

and materials. Youth are no longer rejected but instead are enthusiastically accepted. The need for their services in the armed forces, in industry, in the professions and in essential community activities is so great as to present a problem of wise choice in selection on their part.

THE armed forces are demanding younger and younger men. The age of compulsory induction into the army, navy, and air forces has been steadily reduced. After experimenting with drafted men from twenty-one to thirty-five, the army decided that men in their late 'teens and in their early twenties made the best soldiers. An attempt was made to reduce the draft age to eighteen, but Congress set it at twenty. Army leaders were disappointed, and the campaign to encourage 'teen-age youth to enlist has been intensified.

Youth have proved to be patriotic in the crisis. They have crowded the enlistment centers of the armed forces and have enthusiastically entered the ROTC in high school and college. Their actions have given the lie to the accusation that they are soft and unwilling to make sacrifices for democracy. The needs of the armed forces pose three tasks for youth. The first of these is to secure a clear understanding of the issues which make armed conflict necessary; the second is to comprehend all of the opportunities for service which youth might render in industry, in the professions, in science, and in the armed forces; and the third is to make a decision as to where the greatest contribution can be made. Of course the draft complicates the problem for many young men since the local Selective Service Board may make these decisions for them. Hence it is desirable that youth understand the reasons for compulsory military training and be willing to submit to the authority of the nation when called upon to do their duty.

THE demand for war workers also poses many problems for youth. For the first time in many years, a generation of youth faces the decision between immediate work opportunities on one hand and long-term educational prepa-

This statement was part of the symposium on the Stanford Social Education Investigation presented at the San Francisco meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. The author is associate professor in the School of Education, Stanford University, and second vice-president of the National Council.

ration for more responsible positions on the other. Even for those who decide to go to work immediately, there is the problem of selection among many opportunities. Many youth, faced suddenly with the alluring prospects of jobs, are leaving their homes to go to towns and cities where they have heard that work is available. On arrival these youth crowd the employment offices. When asked what jobs they are prepared to take, many of them say they do not know. Others reply that they are prepared for any job, which usually means no job. It is a bitter disappointment for them to be told that they should return home and prepare themselves for some specific skill needed in a war industry. On the other hand many youth with fine possibilities as doctors, nurses, teachers, chemists, or engineers may prepare themselves for jobs as skilled workers only to discover that mechanical work is uncongenial to their personalities. These youth are likely to feel frustrated and unhappy the remainder of their lives because they did not continue in school.

Although the problem of selecting a job or entering the armed services is one reserved for the older adolescent, many 'teen-age boys and girls, too young to fill adult jobs or to fight, desire strongly to do something in the service of their country. For such youth there are many opportunities in their own local communities. The civilian-defense program and the Red Cross demand legions of volunteer workers. The need for the elimination of waste and the collection of essential new materials—such as rubber, scrap iron, and paper—demands other community workers. Community programs for studying vital social issues, for providing recreation, and for maintaining other essential services become even more important in time of war. In all of these areas young people in school can play an important role and thereby relieve many adults for participation in the armed forces or in industry.

The acceptance of youth as participants in the adult world during the war crisis should not blind us to the need for a continuing concern about their morale. This becomes increasingly important during a long war and in the difficult period of post-war readjustment. In the turmoil and excitement of the struggle for victory, it is easy to overlook many otherwise obvious facts affecting the feelings of youth. For example, the need for participation by youth in the war effort does not automatically provide the opportunity for such participation. Such opportunity means that youth must be at the place where the need

exists and be prepared to assume with effectiveness the responsibilities involved. The greatest demands for war workers up to the present time have been in coastal cities along the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. This means that rural youth generally, and youth in most inland cities are denied opportunity for defense work unless they leave home. Then, too, many of the new jobs demand a type of special training which was not generally given to youth during the depression period.

ANOTHER important factor in the present situation is that it is a temporary emergency. No one expects the war to go on forever. We all devoutly believe that the allied nations will eventually be victorious and that a peaceful and prosperous world, with armament production and the size of armies and navies severely restricted, can and will be established. Thus to become a soldier, sailor, or aviator, or a welder, machinist, or carpenter in a war industry is only a short term goal for most young people. They know that after the war the armed forces and the number of skilled workers will be reduced. The more intelligent among them also know that young people will be the group most seriously affected by any unemployment due to the shift from wartime to peacetime production. The future for youth is uncertain and their souls are troubled by what may be in store for them if they survive the war. Girls who desire above all to marry and establish families find the war disrupting their plans and making wholesome courtship difficult. Boys in the military camps likewise find it hard to secure opportunities to be with girls they can admire and respect.

The uncertainty of the future and the emotional intensity of the present enhance the appeal of unwholesome recreational activities. A young ensign in the navy recently said, "When I have forty-eight hours leave and return to the old university or go home to visit friends, I feel separated from things. Of course there is always the possibility of spending the time drinking in one of the local bars." This spirit of "What's the use?" tends to pervade the ranks of young people still in high school and college; many of them are beginning to feel they are a doomed generation. Why should they struggle to master difficult understandings and skills when they know the army lies ahead and when they hear so few constructive voices informing them of the goals for which we are fighting or the plans for a better world following the war?

WHAT youth needs most today is a philosophy of life which will give purpose and meaning to the necessary struggles and sacrifices of the present and hope for the future. This philosophy of life can come only from a careful deliberation about the essence of man's long struggle for a better world and the meaning of current experiences. Social education teachers must assume a major role in guiding youth to develop purposes and values for living. We possess a knowledge of the American epic; we have studied the issues of the present and pondered the hopes for the future. We can help youth discover the opportunities for participation in the armed forces, in industry, in the professions, and in the essential services required by local communities. We can help them to make intelligent choices as to their own roles, based on a careful study of the needs of the nation and their own potentialities. We can help them to prepare themselves to become efficient workers, citizens, and fighters for the right. We can inspire them with the glorious traditions of democracy and the hope it holds for all.

In all our work with youth during the present emergency, we should take a long-term view. Most young people now in high school will probably not be required to fight or work as adults in this war. They will, however, comprise the adult world that will have to struggle with the difficult problems of post-war reconstruction. They will participate in the establishment of international peace and the securing for all peoples of the earth who desire them the nine rights amplifying the Atlantic charter, which appear in the report of the National Resources Planning Board on planning for post-war America. These rights are:

1. The right to work usefully and creatively

through the productive years of their life.

2. The right to fair play, adequate to command the necessities and amenities of life in exchange for work, ideas, thrift, and other socially valuable services.

3. The right to adequate food, clothing, shelter, and medical care.

4. The right to security, with freedom from fear of old age, want, dependency, sickness, unemployment, and accident.

5. The right to live in a system of free enterprise, free from compulsory labor, irresponsible private power, arbitrary public authority, and unregulated monopolies.

6. The right to come and go, to speak or to be silent, free from the spyings of secret political police.

7. The right to equality before the law, with equal access to justice in fact.

8. The right to education for work, for citizenship, and for personal growth and happiness.

9. The right to rest, recreation, and adventure, the opportunity to enjoy life and take part in an advancing civilization.

Our tasks as social studies teachers in the war emergency are to become aware of the needs of adolescents now and for the future, to determine the characteristics of behavior necessary to resolve these needs successively, and finally to use all of our resources as teachers to assist in the development of those behaviors. We must help adolescents to understand the issues and challenges that confront them, to inspire them with ideals from the American tradition, and to equip them with the competence necessary to achieve those ideals as citizens, workers, and fighters in the crucial struggles of the war and the post-war worlds.

We of the United Nations have the technical means, the physical resources, and, most of all, the adventurous courage and the vision and the will that are needed to build and sustain the kind of world order which alone can justify the tremendous sacrifices now being made by our youth.

But we must keep at it—we must never relax, never forget, never fear—and we must keep at it together.

We must maintain the offensive against evil in all its forms. We must work, we must fight, to ensure that our children shall have and shall enjoy in peace their inalienable right to freedom of speech, freedom of religion, freedom from want and freedom from fear.

Only on those bold terms can this total war result in total victory (PRESIDENT FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT. Delivered before the International Students' Assembly, Washington, D.C., September 3, 1942).

Inflation: Ancient and Present Enemy

Orville S. Poland

THE United States Government embarked upon its current war-production program, and the task of financing it, forewarned against the dangers inherent in the adjustment of our economy to so vast an undertaking. Our tax program, like our War Savings Program, is designed not only to produce revenue for war, but, equally important, to achieve this end in such a way as to neutralize as far as possible the inflationary effects of collecting an immense sum in a very short time.

FINANCING THE REVOLUTION

IN 1775, there was no central government or administration. The colonies, it is true, had sent representatives to a Continental Congress, but these had neither power to bind their respective colonies in important decisions nor right to impose taxes. A committee of finance, known as the Board of Treasury, was organized by Congress in June, 1775, but this had no monetary reserves or any means of accumulating them. This was all the governmental machinery that existed as the country was swept into a war that was to drag itself out over six and one-half years, and cost about \$100,000,000 in specie value.

In June, 1775, directly after the Battle of Bunker Hill, men were leaving because they had no food, no uniforms, no powder and shot, no pay to send home for the support of their families. To meet this emergency it was decided that Congress should issue \$2,000,000 in paper money. A month later an additional \$1,000,000 was put out. The money was to be used to pay the soldiers and to buy war supplies. Face value of the notes ranged from one-sixth of a dollar to \$65. Except that they bore no interest and circulated like money, they were really tax-anticipation notes; as they were received by the tax collectors in each

state they would be turned over to Congress for retirement.

Considerable opposition to the plan was raised by men who realized the inflationary possibilities inherent in such financing. Others, however, saw in inflation only cheap money and an easy way of paying off their debts, and consequently welcomed the idea. In the debates in Congress one member is quoted as saying "Do you think, gentlemen, that I will consent to load my constituents with taxes, when we can send to the printer and get a wagonload of money, one quire of which will pay for the whole?"

INFLATION, 1775-1781

AT THE time it was believed that the war would be of short duration, and that no more paper money would have to be issued. But the need for additional funds to continue the war was pressing, and by November, 1779, long before the date set for the redemption of the original issues, more than \$241,000,000 of Continental paper was outstanding. During the same period the individual states had put out a total of \$210,000,000. There were, in addition, a number of unauthorized issues, while the total was further increased by counterfeiting.

This was an enormous amount of money for a country with a population of only about 3,000,000. Since a large majority of the people produced at home most of their own food, clothing, and household goods, there was only a limited supply of goods to be purchased with this relatively large amount of money. Inflation was the inevitable result.

As the supply of paper money increased, its value began to depreciate, slowly at first, then more rapidly. Prices advanced accordingly. By the latter part of 1779, a hundredweight of flour cost from £90 to £100; the same amount of sugar from £150 to £200; a gallon of rum cost £25. The specie value of these goods would, have been about one-twentieth of the prices quoted above. Since those who depreciated the Continental currency were declared enemies of their country and were punished accordingly, few sellers openly quoted two sets of prices, the one representing

"Total war" now menaces the physical safety of all civilians, but wartime inflation has always menaced their economic security. This contrast of the financing of the American Revolution and our present war effort is contributed by a member of the War Savings Staff in Washington.

specie values, the other paper. Many, however, refused to sell their goods except for specie.

Those who had obligations or who owed money took advantage of the situation to free themselves of their indebtedness. In the words of a contemporary sufferer, "Debtors pursued their creditors and paid them without mercy." As the value of the notes continued its rapid decline, however, it became apparent to all that an excessively inflated currency is little better than no currency at all. The notes were not acceptable, either for consummating a sale or for paying a debt. The country returned—temporarily—to a state of barter, with all credit relations destroyed.

By March, 1780, in spite of legal-tender laws which sought to compel the acceptance of paper at the same rate as silver, and several unsuccessful attempts to fix prices, the value of Continental currency in silver had fallen to 40 to 1. Congress passed an act to retire the Continental currency at the rate of one silver dollar for forty in paper. Some of the paper was redeemed in this way, but much of it remained outstanding until it became practically valueless. It continued to circulate to a limited extent until the latter part of 1780. About that time it was gradually replaced in everyday use by crowns and louis d'or brought in by the French army, and by British money put into circulation by British troops and commissary departments. When, in 1790, the Government offered to accept Continental currency in payment for government bonds at the rate of 100 to 1, only about \$6,000,000 of the \$78,000,000 estimated to be outstanding were received, the remainder probably having been lost or destroyed.

TAXATION AND REQUISITIONS

EFFORTS of the states to raise money through taxation, to finance the war, and to redeem the paper issues vary in detail, but all were unsuccessful in obtaining anything approaching the required amounts. A few people paid their taxes, but the majority evaded payment. There was no adequate machinery, the population was scattered, and distances were great. The cost of collection was so enormous that taxation really did not pay. Most of the money which the states were able to obtain came from the confiscation of Tory wealth.

Between 1777 and 1779, Congress made four requisitions upon the states for a total of \$95,000,000 paper money, but net revenue received up to January 1, 1784, from all requests for money from the states resulted in returns of less than \$6,000,000 in specie. Requisitions on the

states for commodities were little more successful, although at times a considerable amount of food for the army was obtained. In return for goods received, army quartermasters issued certificates to the total gold value of \$16,708,000. This method of obtaining supplies, however, was discontinued in 1781 because the value of the loan certificates had depreciated.

LOANS

THE Continental Congress had been given no specific authority to borrow money, any more than it had been granted the right to levy taxes, but borrowing was not regarded with such popular disfavor as was taxation. Consequently Congress did not hesitate to assume this right, and in 1776 loan offices were opened in every state, each under the direction of an officer appointed by the state. The immediate purpose was to borrow five million Continental dollars at an interest rate of 4 per cent.

Since the certificates acknowledging the loans were not issued in amounts smaller than \$300, only those who were in at least moderately comfortable circumstances were able to buy a certificate. Many people, moreover, were reluctant to lend their money because of the depreciation in the currency value of the loan. Later, when interest was increased to 5 per cent and Congress began using the proceeds from foreign loans to pay the interest on its domestic borrowings, the total of domestic loans increased, and finally reached \$11,586,000 in specie value.

In times of emergency such men as Robert Morris came to the rescue. Morris, besides lending his own money, borrowed from wealthy men in Philadelphia to pay the troops and buy them food and clothing. Haym Solomon lent large sums, and even Washington, the general in the field, at times advanced money to Congress from his private fortune.

France, Holland, and Spain, anxious to see the American colonies freed from British rule, and American commerce opened to their respective nationals, gave their assistance in financing the war. Very early France made several outright gifts to the struggling colonies. Later, between 1777 and 1783, a total of \$6,352,000 was borrowed from France; \$1,304,000 from Holland; and \$174,000 from Spain.

Much of the foreign borrowing was arranged under the direction of Robert Morris, appointed to the position of Superintendent of Finances by Congress in 1780, who became practically dictator of American finances. One of the few

men in the country with expert knowledge of banking and finance, Morris set to work to bring some system into the chaos and confusion of debts and financial accounts. He effected economies in the management of the war, and took steps to fund the floating debt which, when he took office, amounted to more than \$5,000,000. His efforts were aided by the open assistance which France granted, and by the fact that, with Continental paper issues discontinued, he was able to conduct his affairs in terms of specie. In part with money loaned by France he was enabled to found the bank of North America. It is said that through this bank he was able to borrow at least six times the amount of money that he had put in it.

FINANCING THE PRESENT WAR

TODAY the World War makes demands upon us which, in proportion to our resources, are probably even greater than those which the Revolution made upon the thirteen original states. We are faced with the greatest war budget that the world has ever known—70 billion dollars for the present fiscal year alone. We have no illusions about the difficulty or sacrifices involved in raising this enormous sum, but no one doubts our ability to produce the money.

Our total national wealth is estimated at 365 billion dollars. It is not so much upon this, however, that the credit of the United States Government rests. In last analysis it must depend upon the productive and earning capacity of the people, measured in a national income estimated today at more than \$100 billion per annum, and the fact that we stand firmly behind the commitments of the national government.

Our states no longer behave like so many foreign countries but as members of a strong union, to which the people have entrusted the power to raise revenue. The attitude of Americans toward paying taxes has changed radically because of the realization of the many benefits and public services which their taxes buy. Chief among such benefits and public services is the protection of American lives, property, and institutions in time of war.

TODAY, as in the time of the Revolution, an inflationary price advance has accompanied our war-production program. Purchasing power has increased as a result of government expenditures for war necessities. Today, however, by purchasing power we do not mean just the supply of currency in circulation. We now keep most of our money in banks instead of in socks and

crocks; money passes from hand to hand in the form of checks rather than in the form of actual currency. Consequently in measuring purchasing power we must take into consideration not only money in circulation but also bank deposits, since they can be converted at any time into currency or checks. We must also consider the rate of turnover of bank deposits, that is, the rate at which money is withdrawn from and redeposited in banks. Deposits have increased and there has been as well some increase in their rate of turnover.

There has also been an increase in the amount of currency in circulation, but, in strong contrast to the financial conditions of Revolutionary times, today's increase in circulation is not considered an inflationary influence. On the contrary, it is believed to be actually non-inflationary in its effect. When banks issue currency, their reserves are proportionately reduced. Consequently, with lower reserves, they are not able to issue so much credit in the form of loans.

The larger amount of currency now outstanding has been issued to meet the popular demand for cash rather than, as during the Revolution, to serve the Government's financial needs. We have today what is known as an elastic currency. The amount of money in circulation expands or contracts according to the increase or decrease in the public's cash requirements. If at any time the supply of money in circulation is in excess of popular needs, the excess currency finds its way back to the banks and is converted into deposits.

There appear to be several explanations for the increased currency requirements of the American people in recent years. Chief among these would appear to be the fact that, with the expansion in war industry, a greater proportion of the national income has been paid to workers in the lower wage and salary groups, who prefer to be paid in cash rather than by check, and many of whom are unaccustomed to banking their savings. This tendency to hold reserves of cash has been increased by the migration of workers, which began during the depression and has been continued and increased during the period of war production. War workers and families thus uprooted, even if accustomed to banking their surplus cash, have been slow to form new banking connections in new localities which they had no assurance would be their permanent homes. There is some reason to believe that other individuals, who began to hoard cash at the time of the bank holiday have continued this habit, thus further increasing the demand for currency.

UNDER normal conditions production of consumer goods would, in all probability, expand to absorb a part, at least, of the increase in purchasing power which has resulted from war-expanded production. But today we are confronted with a sharp reduction in the output of many items which we have been accustomed to use in everyday life. Men, machines, and materials have been diverted from such production into the channels of war industry. Even before consumers began to feel the direct effect of such shortages, there were anticipatory price advances which forced the government to take strong measures in the form of price ceilings and rationing regulations.

Unlike price advances of Revolutionary times, those at present do not indicate a lack of confidence in our money. If you try to buy some articles on which production has now ceased, you may find that the shop-keeper is asking the ceiling price for them, but he has based this higher price entirely upon the scarcity of the articles. He knows that plenty of people have money just now, and that if you refuse to buy, someone else will buy, so he is not afraid of losing sales. Unlike the merchants of Revolutionary times he could not be persuaded to sell at a lower figure if you were able to offer him the bills, or silver or gold coin of another country. He has no fault to find with the exchange media of the United States. He simply wants more of it in relation to the article which he is selling.

COMBATING INFLATION

BUT inflationary price advances from whatever cause must be checked if we are to keep living expenses within reasonable limits and war costs from expanding unnecessarily. Since the days of the Revolution the Government has awakened to a full realization of the dangers inherent in inflation, and has learned something of the machinery through which to seek to regu-

late it. The fixing of artificial price ceilings has exerted an influence in the right direction. A more fundamental means of dealing with the problem, however, is to drain off excess purchasing power so that it will not compete for the reduced supplies of civilian goods that war industry has left available. Higher taxes will do much to accomplish this purpose, but, even with higher rates and a broadening of the base, taxes alone will not be sufficient to check unnecessary spending. Widespread and systematic investment of current surplus funds in War Savings Bonds and Stamps is needed as well.

War Savings Bonds and Stamps make it possible for all economic classes of Americans to help finance the war and to join the fight against inflation. In last analysis, inflation comes from the people. Increased purchasing power could not cause price advances if it were not used in undisciplined buying. It is the people therefore who must seek to check inflation. This can be done if the part of the current income which remains after taxes and necessary living costs have been paid is not spent, but invested regularly in War Savings Bonds and Stamps. It will not serve the same purpose if money is withdrawn from the bank for buying bonds and stamps. This money would not be spent anyway, and consequently its use for buying bonds could have no effect in reducing the excess purchasing power which drives prices up.

Money lost through inflationary price advances is gone forever, leaving nothing in return. Money spent for War Savings Bonds and Stamps not only helps to finance the war, but gives the purchaser a reserve of savings. These reserves, well-distributed in the hands of individual investors, will help to tide the entire country through the period of post-war adjustment. At such a time, when industry is shifting back to a peacetime basis, a cash reserve may well be the most important factor in making the readjustment.

Next to military and naval victory, a victory along this economic front is of paramount importance. Without it our war production program will be hindered. Without it we would be allowing our young men, now risking their lives in the air, on land, and on the sea, to return to an economic mess of our own making (PRESIDENT FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT, Message to Congress, September 7, 1942).

Town Reports Are Useful

Ruth Andersen

AS A social studies teacher, I have been, and am, interested in developing effective citizens. In order to develop these effective citizens, our leaders in progressive education have exhorted us to send our students out into the community to gather, at first hand, knowledge of the community and of its functions. Furthermore we have been urged to make possible pupil participation in community affairs.

In order to bring about this firsthand knowledge and pupil participation several methods have been suggested, from the comparatively simple one of sending committees of students to interview town officials and to inspect public services to the very elaborate plan by which students take over all the political positions in the community for one day. Even the motion-picture industry took cognizance of this latter method and had the "Dead End Kids" take over a city, much to the chagrin of lawbreakers therein.

Suggestions such as these are somewhat unsatisfactory and even irritating, for the results of a student exodus would not be commensurate with (1) the time and energy devoted to organizing student committees to sally forth into the "outside world," and (2) the infringement on the time and plans of others that such excursions entail.

Happily, we have in New England, an invaluable source of information on township government which we teachers have more or less ignored—the Annual Town Report.

THE simplest form of town report merely lists the receipts and disbursements for the fiscal year. The most elaborate report has a definite educational aim—that of acquainting the citizen with the work of the township officers; improvements in the town; work yet to be done

and the per capita cost of each service which the community renders. Illustrative pictures, diagrams and graphs are used to simplify explanations.

The study of such reports can very definitely give the student a starting point. With this information alone, he understands much of the problems and work of his own community. The information can also be used as a springboard for further study and pupil participation.

With the Town Report as a textbook and the *Connecticut State Register and Manual* as a reference book a unit of study was devised which was certainly interesting at the time and will be fruitful in after years.

The study of town reports in the writer's set-up was especially interesting because in each class were representatives from five or six towns. At the end of the unit, therefore, a large comparison chart was drawn up.

STUDY PLAN

THE unit was divided into two parts. Part I, The study of township government; and Part II, A comparison of the town report of the student's community with that of another town—notably Greenwich or Plainfield which publish the more elaborate type of report mentioned previously.

Part I. My Town. General Information was gathered on twelve topics: (1) Population; (2) Area; (3) Grand list; (4) Rate of taxation; (5) Number of children in elementary schools; (6) Number of children in high school; (7) Principal industries; (8) Number and location of elementary schools; (9) Number and location of fire stations; (10) Number and location of health stations; (11) Number of policemen; (12) Number of firemen.

Problems were devised on The Finances of My Town. For example:

Problem I. Income. What was the total income of the town? Draw a diagram (graph or other illustrative method) to show the percentage of each item of income—e.g. taxes, interest, fees, licenses, fines, etc.

Problem II. Expenditure. What was the total expenditure of the town? Use the same method for illustrating expenditures that you used for income in Problem I. The divisions will be general government, public safety, health, education, etc.

Problem III. Education. What is the cost per pupil of

Civics teachers often complain of the difficulty of finding local material to supplement textbook accounts that are necessarily generalized. The author of this suggestive account of the use of sources readily available to most of us is a teacher in the Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut.

elementary education in my town? What is the cost per pupil of secondary education? What is the cost per capita of public education in my town?

Problem IV. Relief. What is the per capita cost for relief?

Part II. My Town Report compared to that of Greenwich (or Plainfield). Such questions as the following were set: (1) What phases of township government other than tabulated receipts and expenditures are covered in the two reports? List these in two columns, and if the addition seems desirable, put a plus sign, if undesirable, a minus sign, before each item. (2) Is the report written in such a way that the average man and woman would sit down to read it through? Why? Should it be so written? Why? (3) If one report is more expensive to print than the other, do you think the additional expense worth while? Explain.

The last step in this unit was a consideration of the Comparison Chart. This aroused an interesting discussion and searching questions because all the students were more or less familiar with all the towns under consideration. If questions arose, the representative from the town under discussion was considered the authority and called upon to explain. It must be emphasized that much pertinent and down-to-earth class discussion and explanation was necessary throughout the unit.

RESULTS AND BY-PRODUCTS

THE unit also gave a good opportunity for correlation with the bookkeeping department. A teacher in that department arranged her teaching plan so that she taught the drawing up of graphs, diagrams, and charts before we began the town-reports unit. As a result, these

charts and graphs were not only beautiful to behold, but accurate as well.

Students' comments during the course of the discussions were often interesting and enlightening. A State senator was quoted as being most interested because we were doing something so practical in the field of civic education. The town clerk's office was most cooperative in providing us with sufficient copies of the town reports. The students became more observant of township activities which had, of course, been ignored or taken for granted. The town halls became important in their eyes as service centers for their communities. The cost of crime to the city and towns was discussed. Above all, however, the cost of education and pupils' transportation costs amazed them.

Many students became most annoyed by the reports' method of presentation. We had previously arrived at some conclusions regarding town reports, such as: that a town report ought to be so simple that a sophomore could understand it and find it interesting; that a town report should interpret the government for the average citizen.

The true evaluation of such a study as this, however, can only come after the students become of voting age, take their places as leaders and officers in their communities. Nevertheless, the feeling of the instructor at the completion of the unit was one of "something accomplished, something done." Although we had not gone out into the community, we had certainly brought the community in to us.

On critical thinking:

Social problems confront us throughout life. Some of these we ignore; others we try to solve by trial and error. Since in a democracy ability in problem solving is an essential attribute of good citizenship it is obvious that this basic skill must be taught in our schools. There is every reason to believe that power in critical thinking can be developed provided that the teacher has clearly identified the sub-skills involved and provides frequent and purposeful opportunities for their development. . . .

Critical thinking about social problems involves the following sub-skills: (1) defining the problem, (2) locating, selecting and organizing pertinent information, (3) evaluating this information, (4) interpreting the information and drawing conclusions, and (5) presenting conclusions in acceptable form.

HOWARD R. ANDERSON

At Indianapolis, November, 1941

The Historical Approach to Controversial Issues

John H. Haefner

THERE is increasing agreement that controversial issues ought to be taught in the high schools of America. This fact does not solve the problem by any means, however, for the question as to *how* teachers everywhere should handle this instructional dynamite in the classroom is still, too often, real and pressing.

In matters controversial
My perception is quite fine;
I always see both points of view—
The one that's wrong, and mine.

At least five factors, and probably a great many more, are definitely involved in overcoming such provincialism and in teaching controversial issues intelligently. In the first place, both the subject matter treated and the method of presentation must be *intelligible* to the students. In the case of secondary-school learners, this implies a clear but a somewhat simplified and non-technical treatment. It must be interesting and it must lend itself readily to illustration. It need not be in terms of glittering generalities or pontifical platitudes, but it must be related to the background and previous experiences of the students.

Let us be absolutely clear on this score: what is contemplated here is not a curriculum dictated solely by the student's "interest," nor is it meant to be a course of study dealing only with those problems, portions of which the student has already experienced. The point is that the issues chosen for consideration must be in accord with the intellectual maturity which the pupils have

achieved, and they should be such as to challenge the intellectual curiosity of the learners. If an instructor attempts to teach problems which are unintelligible to his students, he is starting with two strikes called against him.

In the second place, the approach to controversial issues must be *rational*, that is, it must appeal primarily to the reason rather than to the emotions. One of the basic objectives of social studies teaching must be that of aiding students in acquiring those habits of mind which will enable them to meet their personal problems and those of a public nature which concern them, in a rational manner. The innumerable opportunities afforded by the various topics taught should be fully utilized in making the students understand that fuzzy thinking must be replaced by scientific thinking, and that the first two essentials in achieving a scientific frame of mind are to banish desire from the thinking process and to suspend judgment until the facts are in. It isn't too early to point out to high school students that the five steps in the scientific method, namely those of observation, comparison, generalization, classification, and verification, though developed by the physical scientists, can be modified to meet the needs of the social studies.

It is essential that students come to think of this process of scientific thinking as a tool which can be used in a wide variety of situations, and one which, while it does not guarantee reaching sound conclusions, does provide aid in doing so. It is a piece of standard equipment, to borrow a phrase from the world of automobiles, with which every new-model social studies student ought to be equipped.

USE OF HISTORICAL METHOD

BUT something more even than intelligibility and rationality is essential in presenting controversial issues to high school students. It is of tremendous importance that the presentation be *accurate*, that is, based upon the most reliable

The content of the social studies is important in education for political citizenship, but the method is almost as significant. This is especially true in the treatment of controversial issues, where perspective, willingness to consider different points of view, and recognition of the need for getting the facts straight are essential factors in a democratic approach to issues. The author of this article is instructor in social studies in the State University of Iowa.

data available to both teacher and students. It is in this connection that the historian can, through the historical method, make a real contribution. The teaching of controversial questions can not be defended unless guarantee is given that the study will be founded upon facts, not generalizations or prejudices.

But what are the facts of the case? The historical method purposes to give students a tool which will aid them in separating fact from fiction. It consists, says Henry Johnson, of two operations, criticism and synthesis.¹ Criticism attempts to determine the character of a given source. In terms of studying a controversial issue this implies posing and attempting to answer such questions as these: (1) Is the author writing from firsthand knowledge or is he not? (2) Is he an authority of repute or is he a newcomer in the area in which he is writing? (3) By what is the writer motivated? These questions, and a good many others like them, are of prime importance in establishing the validity of facts, and high school students are mature enough to make a beginning, however modest, toward understanding the essentials of internal and external criticism.

After looking critically at the sources, the second step in the historical method is that of synthesis. This implies selecting the pertinent facts, grouping them, generalizing from them, and organizing them. Not until this entire process has been completed should the right and the wrong of the problem be brought up for consideration. Not until a firm foundation of fact has been laid should an attempt be made to answer the ethical questions "Shall we?" and "What ought to be done?"

The program of social science instruction, besides including bodies of knowledge and thought, should introduce the younger generation to *sources* for new and current materials and to *methods* of inquiry, scrutiny, criticism, authentication, and verification. Knowledge of such sources and ability to use such methods should constitute one of the major aims of all social science instruction.²

AN adequate approach to controversial issues, however, involves a fourth desideratum, inseparable from the process of synthesis. It must be *fair*—fair to both sides and to all viewpoints.

¹ *The Teaching of History* (New York: Macmillan, 1940, rev. ed.). See Chapters I, "What History Is," and XV, "The Treatment of Current Events."

² *Conclusions and Recommendations*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part XV (New York: Scribners, 1934), p. 54.

Reading materials dealing with one school of thought should be as readily accessible to pupils as those dealing with another, and all parties involved should be given equal hearings. In and of itself the complete record is neither right nor wrong, moral nor immoral. It is amoral. In the process of getting at facts the record itself is neither to be praised nor condemned. It is neither democratically desirable nor is it subversive. It is simply the record. Omission, selection, and emphasis are all-powerful tools in the hands of propagandists, and unless an honest effort is made to study the pro and the con fairly, indoctrination rather than education will result.

A fifth and final factor, also involved in synthesis, is involved in a sound approach to teaching debatable questions. The presentation must be *adequate*, that is, care must be taken to paint a picture at once clear and simple, but yet undistorted and complete. To achieve this, the teacher must realize that the problems of today have their roots in the past, and that consequently the organization of actual teaching materials must give due emphasis to the history and development of the particular problem under consideration. No adequate study of the problems of the war-torn world today, for example, can ignore the Treaty of Versailles and the economic chaos which followed in the wake of the First World War, nor can the AAA be fairly evaluated without studying the economic consequence of the Great War for American agriculture. There are lessons to be learned from history, and high school students can be taught to appreciate that fact. There is already too much skimming of the surface in secondary education, and half-truths, resulting from inadequate understanding of the past, have no place in the consideration of vitally important economic, political and social problems.

Intelligibility, rationality, accuracy, fairness and adequacy—these are five fundamental factors which must be present if the objective of teaching controversial issues is to be achieved, namely the development of students capable of grappling with problems in a rational manner.

DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

HERE, however, a note of warning is not amiss. In our zeal to develop tolerance in our students, it is well to remember that open-mindedness and empty-mindedness are not equivalent terms, and that the willingness and the ability to see both sides of a question do not remove the necessity for reaching a conclusion

which can serve as a basis for further action. Ernest Horn, in his *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, forcefully puts the matter thus:

There are many substantial objections to the inconclusive treatment of controversial issues. In the effort to present all sides of a question, teaching may degenerate into an arid and colorless procedure—a sort of intellectual dilettantism that leaves the student either unconcerned or imbued with a sense of defeat. And after all, life demands action and decision, however tentative the decisions may be. It is debilitating to remain always in a state of suspended judgement. Openmindedness, tolerance, and the presentation of all sides of an issue are means of arriving at conclusions, not a substitute for them. The extreme form of tolerance and open-mindedness that is often advocated in theory is neither possible nor desirable of attainment. It neglects the rôle of ideals and emotions in human decisions and action.³

Teachers of controversial issues need not be sissies. If they have been meticulous in observing the rules of scientific thinking, their reasoned conclusions are fit subject for classroom discussion, provided always that the teachers are willing to submit their views to the same critical analysis which they have encouraged their students to use in judging the validity of the sources and facts they have read.

There is something in the contention [says Dr. Horn again] that the increased vigor given to an author's presentation by a deep conviction stimulates interest and thought to a degree that offsets a good deal of possible bias. The same may be said of the teacher. He creates more interest and commands more respect if he stands for something. And the thing he stands for must be something more than impartiality. The admonition sometimes urged upon teachers never to let students suspect what the teacher believes is hard to follow, even if it be judged desirable; and it is difficult, if not impossible, for the teacher not to make his influence count, even though unconsciously, on the side of his beliefs. While he should studiously avoid imposing his views upon the student, the frank expression of his reasoned convictions need not be incompatible with the sincere desire to encourage and bring about the fairest possible presentation of points of view other than his own. Candor is the best policy.⁴

To that statement nothing need be added.

³ Part XV of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools (New York: Scribners, 1937), p. 95f.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 96.

On academic freedom:

The public schools are, of course, agencies of the state, established by the state, supported by the state, subject to the will of the state. But in one respect they are like other agencies of the state: the courts. Their integrity and their independence of changing political majorities and of pressure groups must be maintained or the purpose for which the state established them is defeated. That puts heavy responsibility on both courts and schools. It frees them neither from criticism nor from reorganization, nor from obligation to take account of the changing responsibilities and policies of the state. It ought, however, to free them from domination and use by demagogues, by political parties, and by pressure groups, and it even reminds us that there are limits beyond which courts can not sacrifice law and justice and schools can not sacrifice established truth even in emergency.

If the social studies sacrifice truth and perspective during wartime in an effort to arouse hatreds and kindle emotions through unrestrained propaganda, they complicate the making of a sound peace and they sacrifice the confidence of the public both in the peace and in a subsequent war. If our cause is just, we can afford to rely on presentation of its merits; we can not afford to sacrifice the integrity of such mainstays of democracy as the courts and the schools to the immediate needs of any emergency. Actually as leaders in all aspects of American life have come to participate in the councils of the schools, the quality of the contributions of public education to the building of morale in crises such as that we are now in have been greatly strengthened. The leadership of the schools is far stronger, far more articulate, and far more influential than in the first World War; dissatisfaction with the contribution of the schools to the building of morale should be correspondingly less.

ERLING M. HUNT

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Silhouettes Can Dramatize History

Leland S. March

LIFE-SIZE silhouettes to dramatize history will add variety to the regular routine of the class and at the same time utilize all the varied abilities and interests of a large group in a creative effort. A silhouette after all is only a black-and-white picture created on a translucent screen by contrasted light and shadow. Naturally, the older groups and higher grade levels can produce more finished programs and do far more in the way of making properties and scenic effects, but the lower age groups are not so critical and are more easily satisfied with a simpler performance.

A good silhouette program is an "answer to prayer" for program chairmen of school assembly committees, teachers' clubs, and parent-teacher associations. It has the advantages of flexibility and inexpensiveness as well as effectiveness as a teaching aid or an entertainment feature.

VALUES OF SILHOUETTES

SILHOUETTES can present impressively an important fact of historical significance. The raising of a squire to knighthood, the meeting of Antony and Cleopatra, the signing of the Declaration of Independence, or the delivery of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address can all be dramatized impressively. This can be done by creating a series of still pictures with a commentator speaking for each, or by allowing the characters to move slowly as the sketch demands. Again, the commentator may speak for all, or the actors may recite their own lines.

Silhouettes are an effective method chiefly because they are interesting to watch. Inasmuch as

it is not necessary to have the room in complete darkness, it is possible to take notes while the silhouettes are being presented. If the lines of the characters and commentator are well read the combination of learning through sight and hearing is extremely effective.

The problems of elaborate costumes, painting of scenery, and the bugaboo of expense, which are the headaches of dramatizing historic events on the stage, are largely eliminated in silhouette presentations. The only costumes and scenery needed are objects which will cast shadows on a sheet or suitable screen and which will look like the costume or scenery desired. For example, a horse out of cardboard will cast as satisfactory a shadow as old Dobbin himself for a still picture. All the properties of a silhouette presentation can be made by an ordinarily resourceful class from home-made materials, school-supplied equipment, out-of-date moving-picture cardboard posters, and other free or low-cost materials. A white sheet that will do for Washington's cape while he is "Crossing the Delaware," will also make an Indian's robe in the next scene, and later double for either an American or British flag by being folded and pinned.

Silhouettes utilize all the varied creative talents in even the largest classes. Pupils who are shy or who have no apparent talent, and who shrink from participating in public, can make their dramatic debut in some capacity behind the screen, where they can gain the joy and emotional satisfaction of accomplishment without the embarrassment of being looked at by an audience. Artistically talented students can design and draw the properties which are going to be made of cardboard. Those who excel in the practical arts can assemble the cardboard horses, guns, and ships, and sew the costumes or cut out the paper properties needed. The best writers can be assigned the preparing of the script, or lines of the commentator and characters. Musical students can plan accompaniments and interludes which will add greatly to the effectiveness of the production both in creating the desired emotional tone of each scene and in bridging over those awkward places when you can not find the gadget

Simple and inexpensive activities which use the talents of pupils are increasingly valued in social studies classrooms. One such type of dramatization, applicable at all grade levels, is described by the headmaster of the high school at Bath, New Hampshire. Previously, while a teacher at the Roosevelt School, Melrose, Massachusetts, he had also contributed articles on "Pupil Made Lantern Slides in the Social Studies" and "Pictures in Social Studies Teaching" to this journal.

that Johnny needs to give to Fred who plays the part of the Indian selling Manhattan Island to Peter Minuit. The music can be produced according to available means and talent. It can be a piano, an orchestra, a vocal chorus, or merely a phonograph playing records borrowed for the occasion. Boys who are gifted as electricians can aid tremendously by arranging and operating the lighting system. Team them with some artists who are color-minded and you will obtain truly beautiful effects by using sheets of colored cellophane as "gelatine filters" held before your lights.¹ Remember that when a color filter is held before the light producing the silhouette only the background will be colored; the shadow will stay plain black. A colored light thrown from the audience's side of the screen will color the silhouette but have little effect on the background. By allowing the electricians and artists to play around with the lights and colors some astonishingly beautiful results can be obtained. Ordinary cellophane from Christmas bundles or commercial wrappings brought in by students or purchased from the dime store can provide all the color needed in lighting, although if the school dramatic society will loan some of its colored spotlights that will help.

Let us consider the class presentation of "The Life of Abraham Lincoln" as an example of how you can include all your class in a silhouette program. First, there will be the technical staff who will get their satisfactory participation from writing the script, preparing the properties and caring for them, preparing and operating the lights and color filters. Then, after the production has been divided into the number of episodes showing the biographical steps in Lincoln's life, the rest of the class can be assigned in groups which will each produce one scene or episode. For the sake of continuity and smoothness, the sketches should be edited by the teacher or some responsible group.

If the story of Lincoln's life is told from childhood up, the size of the players interpreting Lincoln should be graded to show his growth from childhood to manhood. To avoid causing confusion among the audience as to which is Lincoln in the manhood scenes, it will pay to "conventionalize" his figure in a way so he will always have one or two similar characteristics every time he appears. For example, he can always stand in the slightly bowed position we associate

with his later years. Again to avoid confusion or laughter, the same boy should always read the part of Lincoln and let the various actors who portray "Honest Abe" in each group, merely pantomime his actions. Thus you can have one boy read Lincoln's lines and four or five others, wearing the traditional beard and walking with the same bent and thoughtful mien, all assist in portraying the part. If one group of clear-voiced students reads all the lines, and the other groups merely pantomime the action scenes and pose for the stills, a smoother performance will result with less loss of important facts being presented to the rest of the class. After all, this is an educational project and the facts must be adequately presented or the lesson will lose its social studies value and retain only its entertainment and other concomitant values.

Silhouettes are well adapted to the presentation of current-events programs, with either a serious method of presentation or in a lighter vein, by caricaturing the leading men after the fashion of present-day cartoonists. The current events can be limited to world affairs, national affairs, or local news. If preferred, it can include all three. In case it is an assembly program in which the principal stress is the entertainment feature, popular masters of ceremonies are "The Eyes and Ears of the World," with one boy wearing huge cardboard spectacles and the other wearing enormous false ears. Or three characters "Sees Nothing" (hand over eyes), "Knows Nothing" (cardboard head seen in profile with center part an open hole), and "Tells All" (always speaks in profile with a large megaphone). If these are suggested to an average American class, you will be overwhelmed both with ideas on how to improve these and with a hundred others from which you can select those suitable to the type of program desired.

HOW TO PUT ON SILHOUETTES

FIRST, select the story. There is no limit to the number of topics which can be portrayed by the medium of silhouettes, but those best adapted in the social studies field are probably biographies; series of events leading up to some crucial turning point in history; important expeditions of discovery, exploration, or settlement; and stories of important happenings, inventions, or discoveries. Select the story and sell it to your class, or sell the idea of putting on a silhouette program and let them select the story; the class should feel that it has had some voice in the selection.

¹ See Lela A. Cranford and Mary E. Meiring, "Have You Tried Color Silhouettes?" *Journal of the National Education Association*, February, 1941.

Second, divide the story into episodes or scenes. Here again it is wise to allow the class to participate by either making suggestions as to how the story might be broken up into its critical scenes or having a committee selected which will choose the episodes by which the story can best be told. Experience indicates that it is questionable if more than twelve episodes or scenes can be efficiently portrayed in a one-hour period. In case of doubt it is best to have too few rather than to attempt too many. A good silhouette program must be concluded long enough before the end of the period to allow for pupil evaluation of the project just completed.

Third, select the technical assistants. It is always surprising how much ability students have when they are doing something in which they are honestly interested. Naturally senior high school students can do more than the lower-grade pupils, but the amount of talent and ability the younger ones have will never be developed unless we allow them to try under reasonable supervision. Let them do all they can or they will lose interest and let you do the whole job alone. The most important technicians—and they like to be called by these titles—are, first, a chief electrician with one or two assistants, according to how elaborate your equipment is. They will turn on the flood light at the start of each scene, control the color effects during the scene, and then turn off the lights at the finish. No curtain is used. Since the audience can not see the actors unless the flood light is on, this method eliminates the curtain. Second is a chief property manager with as many assistants as needed. Some of these will be the class artists who can design and draw on cardboard much of the scenery which, when cut out and properly mounted, will serve as trees, fences, houses, horses, boats, soldiers in line or whatever else is needed. Here also is the place for the girls who want to work on costumes, wigs, and other small property effects. There will be many small articles and gadgets which will forever be misplaced unless some reliable property manager with a complete list keeps an eye on them. All duties should be delegated definitely to particular people, or no one will feel responsible. "What is everybody's concern is nobody's concern," is a very true proverb. Third is a sound-effects manager, with one assistant in charge of music, one in charge of general sounds and noises, and a staff of script readers. The best reader in the class should serve as the commentator. The other script readers are each assigned to one character whose "voice" they are throughout the whole

production. Fourth is a stage manager with one or two assistants. This technician should be a student only in case you have one mature enough to synchronize the pantomiming of the actors, the reading of the sound-effects staff, and the originality of the electrical staff with their colored lights. In most cases, the teacher will probably do most of the actual work of the stage manager, but it is well to assign a mature pupil to the job and allow him to do all that he can.

Fourth, write the episodes or scenes in detail. The best way to do this is by selecting some student to be responsible for the preparation of each scene and then let this chairman select his own assistants. It is well to discourage the desire of some pupils to serve on more than one script committee unless it is necessary. See that every pupil is assigned to some job. Give each script committee these instructions: "Include in the write-up of your episode the following: (a) action: describe the pantomime or action which each character is supposed to perform; (b) dialogue: write in dialogue form all the conversation which is supposed to take place while the episode occurs; (c) commentator's speeches: write out what the commentator says before the episode starts, during breaks in the action, and at the close of the episode; (d) properties: make a list of the properties needed in the staging of your episode; (e) lighting: tell just when you want the flood light to come on and when it should be turned off instead of the curtain rising and falling. Tell what effects you want in the way of colored lights."

Fifth, edit the script and write the continuity. In the upper grade levels a committee can take the completed scripts of the various episodes and put them together so as to make a smooth performance. The teacher should do the final editing and reserve for himself the final approval. With younger pupils the teacher will generally have to do much of the editing. Several copies will be a great help if it is possible to have several carbon copies typed. Pupils can copy their parts from a master copy if a typewriter is not available.

Sixth, assign a group to present each episode. A responsible chairman should be selected. He may or may not take a dramatic part. His job is to get a copy of the script for his episode and see that each character is properly cast and that all learn their parts, and to rehearse with the group. He or she is the one who should receive the credit or blame if his particular episode is well presented or poorly done. So far as possible it is advisable for the chairmen of episodes to be selected from students who volunteer for the job.

The others in the group may be selected as seems best under your particular conditions. The rehearsals of episodes can be held by the various groups either in different parts of the classroom during a class period, or after school in any convenient place by arrangement with the teacher. It will be necessary for each group to work with the sound-effects unit and the lighting unit to insure perfect team-work.

Seventh, class presentation. For a class presentation it is not necessary to have a complete rehearsal before the final production. If each episode is perfectly prepared then all that is needed is to start the first group on their stunt and have the rest ready when their turn comes. Naturally, a small amount of confusion may occasionally arise, but the whole performance will have a freshness which will keep the entire class alert and interested. An informal class vote as to which episode was best presented will encourage conscientious preparation and be as "manna from heaven" to those who did the work. Be lavish in praise of those who deserve credit. Those not taking part in the episode being presented at the moment should take notes on the facts brought out. This is in preparation for objective tests which should come soon after the presentation. It is very important that there be time for discussion and pupil evaluation of the whole project after the last episode is finished, and before the period ends.

Eighth, assembly presentation. In this case, two full rehearsals should be ample preparation for a smooth-running performance. Parts should be learned, lighting effects worked out, and reading and pantomime synchronized in the episode rehearsals before any full rehearsals are held. If the silhouettes are definitely being prepared for an assembly program, there is no need to allow time for discussion evaluation and testing. This will permit a longer program than in the classroom.

WITH small classes some of the duties of the technical assistants and committees will naturally have to be doubled up and some will have to be done by the teacher, but so far as possible all the duties should be shared in a way to be a burden on no one. In fact all that is actually needed is a translucent screen, a sheet, or a white cotton table cloth which is hung up before the class in a way that there are no wrinkles. It helps if opaque curtains, screens, or blankets be hung at each side of the screen so that the actors will be invisible at all times. Then a powerful electric light (250 to 1,000 watts) is placed in a deflector about eight or ten feet from the screen. All the action must take place between the light and the screen. Characters and properties should be as near the screen as possible without touching it. All motion must be from side to side of the screen as motion to or from the screen results in ludicrous or weird changes in the size and shape of the shadow cast on the screen. The shadow on the screen is all the audience sees. From there on, your class can make the program as simple or as elaborate as it wishes with costumes, properties, music, and colored lights. The silhouette must come entirely from one powerful light, as multiple lamps each cast their individual shadows and make the resulting silhouette blurred and apparently double or triple, according to the number of lights.²

The use of silhouettes helps solve one of the problems of teaching in that classes of all ages are fascinated by them and thus is obtained that keen interest and attention which is one of the first aims of good teaching. Best of all, silhouettes develop the creative abilities of all the class and teach facts in an unforgettable way.

² See "Silhouettes" in *How to Make Good Pictures*. (Rochester: Eastman Kodak Company, 1936), p. 136.

The first function of the social studies is to furnish experience in human relationships. Every pupil comes to school with a background of social experience. . . . He soon senses that he needs to learn more about how to get along with people. The sympathetic teacher consciously provides the pupil with opportunities to expand his experiences (EDGAR B. WESLEY, "The Nature and Functions of the Social Studies in the Elementary School," *Twelfth Yearbook*. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1941, pp. 52f.).

Notes and News

National Council Will Meet in New York City, November 26-28

"Social Education in Wartime and After" will be the theme of the twenty-second annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, to be held November 26-28 at the Hotel Pennsylvania, in New York City. A major concern of the meeting will be to adopt a formal statement setting forth the policy of the National Council with reference to "The Role of Social Studies and the Social Studies Teacher in Wartime." Preliminary drafts for this statement are now being formulated by a Committee on Policy, named for the purpose by President Roy A. Price.

Luncheon meetings, section meetings, study seminars, a banquet, and general sessions will be held in much the same manner as in former years, but their subjects for study and discussion will nearly all be war-centered. Speakers will include government officials as well as social scientists and educators. Joint sessions will be held with the American Political Science Association and the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers. The complete program will be published in *SOCIAL EDUCATION* next month.

In the light of wartime travel restrictions the following statement was released last month by the office of the executive secretary:

While it is naturally desired that attendance at the annual meeting be as representative as possible of the entire membership and while the problems to be dealt with are national in scope as well as urgently timely for all who are interested in teaching the social studies, it is nevertheless advised by the national officers that attendance of members living at a distance from New York be severely limited in order to conserve scarce Pullman space for more pressing war purposes. It is specifically suggested that those who live in communities far enough away from New York to require an overnight train trip should meet and choose one person to make the trip as the representative of the group. On the other hand, all who live within easy access of New York are both invited and urged to attend.

Plans for the meeting have been chiefly developed by the Program Committee and the Local Arrangements Committee, both of which held meetings in New York during the past summer. The Program Committee consists of: Allen Y. King, chairman, Erling M. Hunt, Mary G. Kelty, Robert H. Reid, and Samuel Stein-

berg. The Central committee of the Local Arrangements Committee consists of: William A. Hamm, chairman, Julian C. Aldrich, Paul Balser, Harold M. Long, James V. McGill, Jennie L. Pingrey, Robert H. Reid, George B. Robinson, K. Augusta Sutton, and Hazel Taylor.

National Council at Denver

During the summer convention of the National Education Association at Denver, June 28-July 2, the National Council for the Social Studies held four sessions. Edgar A. Taylor, Jr., of Hackensack, New Jersey, spoke on intercultural education; Paul Reid of Rochester and Washington reported on wartime films for the social studies classroom; Dorothy Gerlach of Dallas and W. F. English of Fulton, Missouri, discussed the social studies in wartime; Douglas Ward of Colorado State College of Education described new resource units for the social studies; Ben Cherrington of the University of Denver dealt with Latin-American relations; and geographic topics were considered by George Barker of Colorado State College of Education, A. W. Erickson of Minneapolis, and L. O. Quam of the University of Colorado.

All sessions were well attended and discussion periods were lively. The program had been arranged by Myrtle Roberts of Dallas. Local arrangements were handled by George E. Hook, chairman, Mary Christy, and Wilford Woody.

State Organizations

The *Louisiana Council of the National Council for the Social Studies* is the most recent addition to the growing family of state organizations of social studies teachers. At a meeting at Louisiana State University on August 10 the Louisiana Council was formed, with the following officers: Mrs. May Lee Denham, president; Lorimer E. Storey, vice-president; and Lillian Oleson, secretary-treasurer. The next meeting will be held at Shreveport in November during the state convention of the Louisiana Teachers Association.

The *Illinois Council for the Social Studies* held its third annual Social Studies Laboratory at Lake Bloomington during August. The increased enrolment was due in part to the fact

that many county superintendents provided scholarships in order to enable attendance at the Laboratory by one or more superior teachers from their respective counties. Director of the 1942 Laboratory was Robert S. Ellwood.

The second annual Laboratory Session of the *New York State Council for the Social Studies* was held at Cazenovia Junior College, August 2-8. More than forty teachers worked together on courses of study to satisfy the new State requirements. Outstanding speakers during the week included: Roy A. Price, Howard Anderson, Mrs. Edith Oagley, Miss Mildred McChesney, Mrs. Harrison Thomas of the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, Stewart Cole of the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, William E. Young, James Michener, Miss Effie Riley, and Miss Louise Capen. The staff was composed of classroom teachers of the state, who have been working with the new program, and included: Harold M. Long, director; Edith E. Starratt, registrar; Ruth Miller, president of the New York State Council; Laura M. Shufelt, vice-president; Vaughan F. Abercrombie. Miss Kathryn Heffernan and Loren Woolston were also assisting on the staff for short periods. The group represented all parts of the state, and all grade levels. An important feature of the week's work was a collection of books and other materials brought by Miss Ruth Evans of the State Library, which proved most helpful. The session followed the procedure of a workshop, and encouraged individual work in developing courses.

E.S.

For further news about the activities of local, state, and regional organizations, see the September issue of the *NCSS Public Relations Committee Newsletter*, recently mailed to the president and secretary of each known organization, and available to others on request from the headquarters office, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington. (If you are a president or secretary and failed to receive a copy, be sure to write for one at once and add your name to the list.)

The Thirteenth Yearbook

Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies is the title of the Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, edited by Howard R. Anderson, now in press, and scheduled for publication on November 2. The book is comprised of the editor's introduction and four long chapters, as follows:

- I. The Nature and Purpose of Critical Thinking in the Social Studies, by Frederick George Marcham
- II. Methods and Materials for Developing Skill in Critical Thinking, by Elmer Ellis
- III. Developing Skill in Critical Thinking through Participation in School and Community Life, by Howard E. Wilson
- IV. The Evaluation of Critical Thinking, by Hilda Taba

Each member of the National Council who is in good standing as of November, 1942, will be sent a free copy of the Yearbook immediately on publication. As in other years, this copy will be bound in paper unless a previous request has been sent to the Executive Secretary's office, asking for a cloth-bound edition. To secure, the latter, send in your request accompanied by 30 cents not later than October 15. The price of the Yearbook will be \$2.00 paper and \$2.30 cloth.

Paying for the War

Paying for the War, a bulletin for teachers sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies, will be published by the Government Printing Office for the Treasury Department about October 20. It will be sent free to all members of the National Council. Chester D. Babcock of the Lincoln High School, Seattle; Eber Jeffery of the Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington; and Archie W. Troelstrup of New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, collaborated in preparing the publication, which also carries a foreword by Roy A. Price, president of the National Council.

The bulletin surveys the whole field of war finance, summarizing the problem, sketching historical background and current developments, and suggests student activities, bibliographies, and ways of working consideration of the topic into the curriculum.

Schools in the War

A national "Schools at War" program was inaugurated September 25 by the War Savings Staff of the Treasury Department, the U. S. Office of Education and the Wartime Commission of the Office of Education. It is intended to stimulate and publicize activities in all American schools. Local, state, and national exhibits will be sponsored, and a certificate of distinguished service will be awarded by the Treasury Department to each school demonstrating an effective program in its report, due January 7, which can be made with scrapbooks, clippings, photographs, essays, etc. The slogan of the program is "Save! Serve! Conserve!"

Detroit. The Division of Instruction of the Detroit Public Schools, in cooperation with the Departments of History and Geography of Wayne University, issued a weekly bulletin from April 30 through June 1 on "America at War." Intended for use in classes throughout the city, the issues dealt with are: War Comes to America, Origins of the Second World War, War with Japan, The Strategy of This War, Geography and the War, and What Schools Can Do.

National Institute on Education and the War. A National Institute sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission was held on the campus of American University, Washington, August 28-31. Problems of manpower, volunteer service, finance and price control, the issues of the war, and education's role were discussed by government officials and prominent educators including J. W. Studebaker, Paul V. McNutt, General Somervell, General Hershey, James Landis, William Batt, Senator Thomas of Utah, Elmer Davis, Secretary Wickard, and Leon Henderson. The proceedings will be published in two volumes, entitled *Handbook on Education and the War*, about October 10. Copies will be distributed free on request, for a limited time. Several members of the National Council attended the session.

Wartime Teaching Aids. A revised list of selected "Wartime Teaching Aids" was issued by the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, on May 27. The free list and all its items, all inexpensive, are available at that address.

Air Power. A vigorous program for making American youth conscious of the role of air power both in this war and in the period after the war has been undertaken by the Civil Aeronautics Administration of the U. S. Department of Commerce and the U. S. Office of Education. A bulletin on "Air-Conditioning Young America" was issued by them in May. An "Air-age Education Series" including seventeen titles, for school use, is now being published by Macmillan. Those of special interest to social studies teachers are *Human Geography in the Air Age*, by George T. Renner; *Social Studies for the Air Age*, by Hall Bartlett; *Globes, Maps, and Skyways* by Hubert A. Bauer; and *The Air We Live In*, by George T. Renner and Hubert A. Bauer.

Post-war Planning

A quantity of published material testifies to the widespread conviction that the fruits of victory in war can be dissipated in an unplanned peace. In August the NEA issued a five-page list

of organizations, both private and official, and of books, pamphlets, and articles concerned with post-war planning. Available on request to the NEA at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington.

In June the *Pamphleteer Monthly*, published by the Pamphlet Distributing Company, 313 West 35th Street, New York, listed titles on "Post-War Planning" issued since May, 1940. 35 cents.

A 28-page "General Bibliography on International Organization and Post-War Reconstruction," prepared by Hans Aufricht was issued as the May-June bulletin of the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 8 West 40th Street, New York. Two reports of the Commission, the "Preliminary Report" (April, 1941, 5 cents), and the "Transitional Report" (April, 1942, 5 cents), have been published as issues of *International Conciliation*. Both include material of interest to secondary-school teachers.

New Resource Units

Any social studies teacher who last spring saw the first numbers in the new *Problems in American Life* series of resource units issued jointly by the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, with the assistance of the General Education Board, will be pleased to hear the announcement that five more numbers will be brought out in October. The new units, like their predecessors, each contain an analysis of a timely social problem by an eminent social scientist and a wealth of teaching aids by a master teacher. Their titles, authors, and prices are listed on page 289 of this issue.

Social Studies Research

An exhaustive, but compact review of recent research on the teaching of the social studies was published in booklet form (56 pages and cover) in October, 1941, as Part 2 of that month's issue of the *Review of Educational Research*. The summary, citing a total of 451 published and unpublished studies contains five sections: I, "The Nature and Function of Social Studies in Education," by John A. Hockett; II, "The Curriculum in the Social Studies," by Murray Lee; III, "Methods of Learning and Teaching," by William E. Young; IV, "School and Community Life in the Social Studies Program," by Howard E. Wilson; and V, "Evaluation and Appraisal in the Social Studies," by Howard R. Anderson. The booklet may be purchased separately for

75 cents from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

Recent Articles

Meyer, Frank. "Judging Student Government: The Criteria of a Good Plan," *Clearing House*, XVI:451-53, April, 1942. Student government as democracy.

Painton, Frederick C. "The Kansas Way," *American Legion Magazine*, XXXIII:26-27, 50, July, 1942. An enthusiastic report of the activities sponsored by the Kansas Department of the American Legion on behalf of citizenship education for children and youth. The most important of those activities to date has been the introduction of a high-school course in Americanism, to be followed in 1942-43 by a similar course in elementary schools. Copies of the course syllabi may be obtained free on request from Scott Berridge, American Legion, Topeka, Kansas.

Syrkin, Marie. "Morale Begins at School," *Common Ground*, II:98-102, Spring, 1942. A New York City teacher writes from her classroom experience of the patriotism of high-school youth who are mostly the children of recent immigrants. She writes especially of their attitudes and activities since Pearl Harbor.

Nominations for 1943

The Committee on Nominations of the National Council for the Social Studies invites full expression from the membership in regard to nominations of the following officers to be voted on at the next annual business meeting on November 28-30 at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New

York: president, first vice-president, second vice-president, and two members of the Board of Directors (for three-year terms). The nominations are presented by the committee on the third day of the convention.

We also request suggestions for new members of the Committee on Nominations, to be considered by the president when making appointments of new members of the Committee.

The Committee must assume the final responsibility of nominating candidates, but invites your suggestions to serve as a guide. This is a new effort on the part of the Nominating Committee and it is hoped that the response will be enthusiastic and representative. This procedure should appeal to us as social studies teachers who stand for one-hundred per cent participation in voting on election day.

We have printed for your convenience, a return blank. If you prefer, send a letter to one or all members of the Committee instead of using the following blank; your suggestions will be given the same consideration.

Ethel De Marsh, Chairman, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

R. O. Hughes, Board of Education, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

To the Committee on Nominations:

I suggest the following members of the National Council for the Social Studies for the consideration of the Committee in preparing a list of nominees for the election on November 30, 1942, at the annual business meeting, New York.

President

1st Vice President

2nd Vice President

Two new members of Board of Directors

(3 year term). 1.....

2.....

I suggest the following names for the consideration of the president in making new appointments to the Committee on Nominations.

.....

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

Selected Educational Motion Pictures: A Descriptive Encyclopaedia, has been issued by the American Council on Education (744 Jackson Place, Washington. \$3.00). In 372 pages it reviews and evaluates more than 450 films. The distinctive feature of the news list is the fullness of its synopses and the attention to impressions created, enabling teachers to determine whether films are really suitable to the needs of their classes. In this respect the new publication goes beyond the H. W. Wilson Company *Educational Film Catalog*, the quarterly supplements of which are valuable for keeping teachers up to date.

The evaluations in the new catalog go beyond such general comments as "good" or "excellent"; they indicate what purposes are best served, and note unusual strengths or weaknesses. Evaluations are based on reports from more than 5,500 teachers, from 12,000 pupils, and from competent educators who pre-viewed the films.

The catalog does not list films that are considered poor or weak. It is admitted that many valuable films may have been omitted; that is certainly true of films dealing with topics outside the usual curriculum pattern. The catalog lists 16-mm. films produced prior to January, 1941. To date, no provision for supplement has been made. It is to be hoped that the American Council can continue its excellent work in making available the frequent supplements that are badly needed.

New Tools for Teaching, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, is an organization set up to facilitate the procurement of motion pictures, radio transcripts, pamphlets, and books on outstanding problems of the day. This clearing house now has available a variety of vital material on Civil Liberty, Food and Health, Education for Citizenship, Financing the War, Inflation, Labor and Defense, and Housing. Write for a free list of available materials.

Selected Films on the War Effort is the title of Bulletin No. 81 of the Curriculum Laboratory, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee. This bulletin lists forty films on various aspects of America's war efforts. Price, five cents.

The 1942 issue of the catalog of the New York University Film Library, 71 Washington Square, New York, lists an impressive number of war films on "democracies at war," "community activity in wartime," "school and youth problems in wartime," "labor problems in wartime," "hemisphere defense," and "Canada." There are an average of a dozen films under each of these headings. The average cost of a one-reel subject from the library is \$1.50 per day.

Have you films, photographs, or transparencies of any area outside of the United States? The United States Government wants such pictures for use in the war effort. If you have any such films get in touch with the Amateur Cinema League, 420 Lexington Avenue, New York, the collection agency for this vital material.

Recent 16-mm. Releases

British Library of Information, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Battle of the Books. 1 reel, sound, rental \$1.00. The role of writers, publishers, and readers in war.

American Film Center, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Women In Defense. 1 reel, sound, free. Script by Eleanor Roosevelt, narrated by Katherine Hepburn.

Princeton Film Center, 410 Nassau Street, Princeton, New Jersey.

Know Your Enemies—Japan. 1 reel, sound. A summary of the strengths and weaknesses of Japan. Made in cooperation with the Institute of Pacific Relations.

National Film Board of Canada, Ottawa, Canada.

Ottawa—Wartime Capital. 1 reel, sound. Canadian officials and government employees in the war effort.

The Cooperative League, 167 West 12th Street, New York.

Here Is Tomorrow. 3 reels, sound. A history of the growth of cooperatives in the United States.

Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, New York.

One Day in Soviet Russia. 5 reels, sound. Written and narrated by Quentin Reynolds. Shows Russian life in the midst of the war effort.

Radio Notes

The Columbia Broadcasting System's School of the Air of the Americas opens its 1942-43 school year on October 5 at 9:15 A.M., EWT. Monday's program will be entitled "Science at Work." October's schedule will give an idea of the type of lesson to be broadcast: on October 5,

"What Is Science?"; October 19, "Building Machinery"; October 26, "Liquid Power" (oil). Tuesdays bring "Music on a Holiday"; October 6, "Dedication to Ideals"; October 13, "Columbus Day"; October 20, "Alaska Day"; October 27, "Navy Day." The Wednesday programs will continue the "New Horizon" series on South America: October 7, "Columbus Eclipses the Moon"; October 14, "Cabot Discovers 'Land of God'"; October 21, "Cuba, Springboard for Conquest"; October 28, "Mexico's Tragic Emperor." The Thursday programs are dramatized stories for children of the Americas and are entitled, "Tales from Far and Near." Friday again brings "This Living World," a program of current-events discussions. The topic on October 9 will be "The United Nations," and on October 16, "War on the Home Front." For a complete program of the Columbia School of the Air write for a copy of the *Teachers' Manual*. Your students may also keep abreast of Columbia programs by requesting a copy of the "Student Guide," published monthly by the Columbia Broadcasting Company, Department of Education, 485 Madison Avenue, New York.

Dedicated to the task of transforming mutual ignorance and suspicion into mutual understanding and sympathy for the sharing of a common democratic destiny, the largest university in the world opened its doors of learning to the people of all the Americas on Monday, July 6. On that date the NBC Inter-American "University of the Air" presented its premier broadcast. (NBC-Red, 10:30 P.M. EWT). This series of programs presents facts about our Latin-American neighbors and emphasizes the striking parallel between their concepts of life and culture and those of their North-American friends.

Among the most recent publications of the evaluation of School Broadcasts, Ohio State University, Columbus, are:

46. R. R. Lowdermilk, *A Study of America's Town Meeting of the Air*. Price 25 cents. Concludes that discussion broadcasts, such as "Town Meeting," constitute an important resource which teachers can utilize in relation to the accomplishment of their objectives.

47. G. D. Wiebe, *The Program Analyzer*. 10 cents. A suggested method for checking on radio-listening habits.

53. Norman Woelfel, *What Objectives for School Broadcasts?* 10 cents. An analysis of the results school broadcasts are now achieving and those they are failing to achieve.

54. Howard Rowland, *Crime and Punishment on the Air*. 25 cents. A study of the crime pattern on the air and its implications for radio and education.

55. Seerley Reid and Daniel A. Day, *Research in the Classroom Use of Radio*. 50 cents. A summary of the findings of the Ohio State University study.

58. Irving Robbins, *What Teachers Think of Radio*. 10 cents. Summary of a questionnaire to teachers.

Recordings

Are you teaching Latin America this semester? If you are, you should get a copy of Gustavo Duran's *Recordings of Latin American Songs and Dances* from the Music Division, Pan American Union, Washington. It is well worth the thirty cents it costs. The records are grouped by countries and the list is annotated to describe the type of music on each disc.

We have already called attention to the list *The Other Americas through Films and Records*, but a reminder may be in order. This booklet is obtainable free from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington. The recordings in this booklet are presented in a chart from which makes it easy to find the proper record.

Your local music store will have a copy of Decca's Album Set No. a-278, *Play Party Games—Square Dances*. This is a set of three 10-inch records of American folk music such as "Oh, Suzanna," "Brown Jug," "Shoo Fly," "Captain Jinks," and the like. You'll find it valuable material for building up background and atmosphere.

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association has collaborated with the U. S. Office of Education in bringing out a list of materials on American schools in wartime. Among the materials which have been developed is an electrically transcribed recording entitled, "How Schools Can Help to Win the War." It may be borrowed from the Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington.

For several years teachers interested in the use of recordings have wished for a catalog listing and describing available records. *Recordings for School Use, 1942: A Catalog of Appraisals* (250 pages) by J. Robert Miles, has now been published by the World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. This catalog grew out of the investigations carried on by the Evaluation of School Broadcasts at Ohio State University. Each record is listed by title, general rating, subject-matter area, size, total program time, recording speed, producer, and price. A paragraph of appraisal is followed by a rather full description of the contents of the record. To teachers who have had to purchase records by title only, with no opportunity to hear each re-

cording before purchase, this catalog should prove invaluable, or at least well worth the purchase price of \$1.24.

A bulletin dealing with *The Use of Recordings in a Social Studies Class* by Norman Woelfel may be obtained from Evaluation of School Broadcasts, Ohio State University, Columbus, for 20 cents. This bulletin describes an experiment carried out by Dr. Arthur B. Moehlman with an eleventh-grade class in the Ohio State University High School. The class used a series of Mutual Broadcasting System's records, based upon James Truslow Adams' *Epic of America*, as a means of getting a "quick overview" of American history. The report is especially valuable for its stenographic record of a typical class discussion, for its student reactions, and, most important, for its conclusions as to the things to do and not to do in connection with the use of recordings in a high school social studies class.

Graphic Aids

A collection of symbols for use in charts, graphs, and maps has just been issued by the Pictograph Corporation, 142 Lexington Avenue, New York. Titled *1000 Pictorial Symbols* this book, at \$2.00 a copy is readily usable and full of ideas for pictorial representation of social data.

The Weber Costello Company, Chicago Heights, Illinois, will send interested teachers an "Art Materials Catalog" presenting the various media which may be employed in correlating art and social studies activities. Several examples of such correlation are included in the project. Weber Costello also have a little folder entitled, "The Place of Blackboard and Chalk in Modern Education." Either or both of these folders are free for the asking.

A new development in teaching material is the kits of visual teaching aids developed by Foley and Edmunds, Inc., 480 Lexington Avenue, New York. Each kit contains five 35-mm. film strips, six illustrated charts, the materials for constructing a diorama, an outline map with an adhesive symbol set, a set of 24 to 36 photographs, and a teacher's guide. So far two of these kits have been produced, one on United States Geography (\$15) and one on South America (\$22.50).

Inexpensive Teaching Materials

It is difficult today to keep up with the teaching aids which are available, especially free or inexpensive materials. A good map which may be had free today may not be available by the time the busy teacher gets around to write for it. Yet, a surprisingly large amount of material is available and *can* be had for the asking. A good guide list to this material is *Price Lists of Inexpensive Teaching Materials*, edited by Hugh B. Wood and obtainable for 26 cents from University Co-operative Store, Eugene, Oregon. This list is Curriculum Bulletin, No. 24.

An exhibit of materials on consumer education is available from the Consumer Division, Office of Price Administration, Washington. The borrower pays transportation charges.

Kodachrome Slides

The small 2 x 2-inch slide in natural color is fast growing in popularity among the classroom teachers of America. Many teachers make their own with miniature camera and kodachrome film. For those who wish to build up a collection of those slides for teaching purposes the principal source is the Society for Visual Education, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago. A new 72-page catalog of color slides for the social studies has just been issued and a copy may be obtained on request.

Recommended Readings

Dale, Edgar. "Motion Pictures and the War," *Educational Screen*, XXI:219-220, 228, June, 1942. Summarizes the ways in which films can serve in the victory program.

Hoff, Arthur G., "Movies Versus Field Trips," *Educational Screen*, XXI:219-220, 228, June, 1942. A good statement of the limitations of field trips and the advantages of substituting the motion picture to overcome these weaknesses.

Laufe, A. L. "Capitalizing the Radio Educationally," *The Educational Forum*, VI:387-389, May, 1942.

LeMasters, E. M. and Troutman, Clark. "Seeing Is Believing," *School Executive*, LXI:29, 36, July, 1942. How a display of the "School and Community at Work on the War" heightened interest in the work at the school. Suggestions for the preparation of such displays.

Readers are invited to send items of interest for this department to Dr. Hartley at the editorial office, 204 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York.

Book Reviews

WORLD HISTORY. By Carlton J. H. Hayes, Parker Thomas Moon, and John W. Wayland. (Rev. ed.) New York: Macmillan, 1941. Pp. 885. \$2.56.

One of the necessary evils, resulting from the welter of courses offered in the secondary school today, is the one-year course in World History. Only in a streamlined civilization would such a course be envisaged where an attempt is made to give a bird's eye view of all history from the Neanderthals in their caves to the Fascists in their air-raid shelters.

Still assuming that such a Gargantuan feat is possible, this revision brings the book up to the summer of 1941. The organization is almost identical with the 1938 edition with the addition of two concluding chapters: "Years of Crisis" and "The Second World War." These two chapters lack strength, as they form a running narrative of events with no attempt to point out fundamental causes and results. The authors make little mention of the parts played by nationalism and imperialism in creating the present situation so a student would finish his study with little basic understanding of the contemporary struggle.

The authors says frankly that the book is brief, introductory, and omits a "mass of minute objects" in order to give "the main forces and especially the larger movements." A graduate student of history has acquired a vast storehouse of those "minute objects" from which he is able to understand "main forces" and "larger movements." In contrast, the average secondary-school student is being introduced, for the first time, to most of this material. If the past is to be made real to him, the people must be brought to life and events and conditions presented in a richly detailed narrative. This is obviously impossible when the story of all civilization has been condensed into one volume. The inclusion of so much material permits little more than the mention of people by name and a recitation of innumerable events. The orthodox chronological organization is used except in the topical treatment of the Middle Ages. Over half the book is devoted to modern history, and the emphasis is primarily political with a little general social, economic, and cultural history.

The many illustrations, with explanatory comments, form an integral part of the text and the

sources are usually acknowledged. The maps are clear and good in color.

To make the book intelligible an extensive program of collateral reading is needed. The suggested readings are quite limited and are not classified as to type. The study helps and review questions stress retention of factual material rather than understanding. There is a conventional table of contents and index. The format is good.

It is clear that eminent scholarship has gone into the writing of this text and the material is reliable. As an outline for the study of world history it would be valuable if supplemented by explanation by the teacher, and by a program of collateral reading and visual material.

MARY LAING SWIFT

Sunset Hill School
Kansas City, Missouri

MODERN HISTORY. By Carlton J. H. Hayes and Parker Thomas Moon. (4th ed.) New York: Macmillan, 1941. Pp. 937. \$2.56.

The field of modern history lends itself most naturally to a study of democracy and of those current problems which prevent the realization of the democratic way of life for all men in all places. In the field of secondary-school texts this book marks a masterful achievement in its presentation of the long, tortuous, and uneven development of political, social, and economic democracy. The final testing ground of democracy has been the past twenty-five years and recent events have thrown new light on much of that period which, it now appears, was incorrectly interpreted before. This edition includes a complete rewriting of this twenty-five year period. This entailed the amplification of much material as well as many reinterpretations. More than half the book deals with the period since 1848, and a fourth of the whole volume is given to the period since 1914. Moreover, there is a fine summary of the ancient and medieval worlds, emphasizing certain lacks in democracy as well as definite beginnings. Throughout, there is constant reference to the present and to conditions familiar to students.

An excellent marshalling of salient facts in a unit organization, scholarly discrimination in

their choice, and vivid presentation with the use of great detail give the book clarity and reality. The importance given to political, economic, and social history is almost equal and there is special emphasis on the vital effects of economic conditions on politics, social life, and religion and art.

A wealth of illustrations with some descriptive comment, satisfactory maps, and good collateral reading suggestions add to the value of the book. Well-organized introductions at the beginning of each unit summarize the unit just completed and tie into the new one. One fine feature is the very detailed table of contents. The general format is good.

This would be a very teachable, completely reliable text in the secondary school. The stress on the inheritance of one age from all preceding ones should develop in students a clear conception of the continuity of history. It seems particularly appropriate now that continuity in the development of the democratic concept should be the theme, dynamically presented.

MARY LAING SWIFT

Sunset Hill School
Kansas City, Missouri

THE BRITISH EMPIRE, 1815-1939. By Paul Knaplund. New York: Harper, 1941, Pp. xx, 850. \$4.00.

This is by far the most comprehensive history of the British Empire in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries to be found in any textbook. It may be that it is too comprehensive for the average college student who approaches the subject without any previous knowledge of it, and it is for college students primarily that the series in which this volume appears is designed. Professor Knaplund is a distinguished scholar who has made important contributions in the field of British imperial history, and he is an experienced teacher. His object has been to include only what seems to him essential, but this embraces so much detail that some of his undergraduate readers may not receive very clear impressions of the larger contours of the historical landscape, especially as the author does not employ any of the customary pedagogical devices for stressing the salient. Those, however, who have already have some knowledge of the subject in its broad outlines will profit from the author's ripe scholarship.

The volume is divided chronologically into four parts which deal, respectively, with the years

1815-1837, 1837-1870, 1870-1901, and 1901-1939. In order to understand the development of the empire it is necessary to know something about what was going on at its center, and each part begins with a chapter on Britain, which is followed by chapters on the geography of the Empire, imperial policy, British North America, the British West Indies, British Africa, Australia, New Zealand, and India. They are all written on the basis of well-digested, reliable information which has been long in the acquiring. A notable feature of the work is its impartiality. No matter how heated were the controversies or how virulent the animosities to which he refers, the author never takes sides. He is fair to Sir James Stephen without being unfair to the colonial reformers. He has written extensively on Gladstone and has an admiration for him, but his references to Disraeli betray no animus. Even the Irish question in its various phases fails to arouse in him anything approaching passion. The style is sober and sometimes rather pedestrian, seldom enlivened by such writing as Professor Knaplund is capable of. One reader at least found himself wishing for more of the sort of thing that the author gives in his brilliant appraisal of Lord Curzon's work in India.

ROBERT LIVINGSTON SCHUYLER

Columbia University

WORLD ORDER IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE. By Hans Kohn. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1942. Pp. xiv, 352.

Hans Kohn has produced a significant work. The slogan should be, "One on Every Bookshelf." This in spite of the fact that there is, it is hoped, little which is new to social studies people. Although it is unnecessarily metaphysical in places and suffers, at times, from a somewhat pedantic complexity in sentence structure, it is a work which those concerned with the fate of the nation can ill afford to pass up. It pulls together facts about liberalism, totalitarianism, nationalism, imperialism, and internationalism and weaves them into a clearcut, decisive pattern.

Professor Kohn sees in the present world conflagration a basic, mortal combat between two great ideas: democratic liberalism and autocratic totalitarianism. On the one hand there is the concept of the world as based upon the universality of justice, the individual worth and dignity of each mortal, and the value of ethics as the foundation upon which civilization rests. On the other hand there is the revolt against ethics, the

negation of individualism, the reversion to the injustice of a barbarous tribal domination of a "master" race. The humanitarian liberalism of Jefferson, Madison, and Lincoln must defeat the totalitarian negativism of Nietzsche, Spengler, and Hitler. One or the other must perish; both cannot fashion the destiny of man. This Battle of Ideas must be waged with all instruments of destruction in that it is we or they, civilization or barbarism, idealism or the cult of force which will triumph.

In the nineteenth century nationalism was a unifying force. It was also something which was learned, and a thing which changed; it was not one and the same in all times and places. It follows, therefore, according to Professor Kohn, that its present form can be unlearned, that it can be changed from a destructive political force which divides to a purely cultural force which stimulates creative civilizing activity.

As for imperialism, three major types are identified. The first of these is the world-embracing, all-inclusive concept of empire which held sway from the time of Alexander to the sixteenth century. Based on the ethics of Zeno and the religion of Christ, empire was but the framework in which the brotherhood of man could find effective realization and institutionalize a unity of purpose. Dr. Kohn holds that the national empires of Britain, France and Spain, developed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, were based on these same Stoic-Christian precepts, but that unity gave way to the balance of imperial power because vast new worlds were discovered beyond the limited horizon of Europe and the Mediterranean—areas so vast and new and unknown that the sixteenth-century mind could not encompass a world whose size had been suddenly multiplied many fold. The third type of imperialism—German totalitarianism—revives the unitary concept of a single world state but at the same time rejects the principle of the brotherhood of man upon which the Roman, Holy Roman, Napoleonic, and even the eighteenth- and nineteenth-century British, French, Spanish and American empires were built. It is this rejection which makes Nazism so infinitely dangerous, so unalterably iniquitous.

Out of the supreme crisis which civilization faces today must evolve the global state resting on the secure foundation of democracy, with nationalism de-politized, and with the old imperial idea of the unity of mankind and civilization revived. This is the rather nebulous and tenuous conclusion set forth in the final pages. Few well-

informed Americans will quarrel with this. The global state is doubtless the ultimate solution of the enigma of war. But the real question is one of determining whether the time is now. Professor Kohn overlooks at least four grim facts. One: the peoples of the democratic nations will not be willing to place their sovereignty, and thus their future, in the hands of a non-democratic world state. Two: a world state if it were democratic, would ipso facto be organized with representation based on population. Three: a state thus organized could not be democratic, because, four, not more than 27 per cent of the world population is capable, in the near future, of democratic organization, and not more than 16 per cent of the total world population actually enjoyed representative self-government before the present war. As long as five-sixths of the world either prefers or is forced, because of illiteracy and general backwardness, to have autocratic government there is little chance that the global state will evolve. To attempt to build on other than a democratic base is to build on shifting sands.

The broad sweep and organization of this book commends it to serious consideration and thoughtful reading by the social studies teacher and pupil alike. It is, as its title claims, an historical perspective. Its clear and forceful presentation of the nature of the conflict in which we are engaged makes incomprehension inexcusable.

JAMES A. BLAKEMORE

Philadelphia

THE GOOD INHERITANCE: THE DEMOCRATIC CHANCE. By Norman Cousins. New York: Coward-McCann, 1942. Pp. 318. \$3.00.

This is a book that many teachers of history have written—in their minds. Now that Mr. Cousins has seen fit to write it on paper, potential authors can be greatly gratified that he has done the job so well. The striking historical parallel presented by the struggle of ancient democracy as typified by Athens against the forces of totalitarianism as typified by Sparta, and the struggle of modern democracy against the forces of totalitarianism in our day, is effectively developed. The author recounts the experience of the Athenians—how they failed to maintain their democracy against the assaults of the enemy, how they failed of their opportunity to unite the Hellenes in a truly democratic union, how their early idealism deteriorated and ended in a sad and destructive pursuit of imperialism. This was "The Promise That Failed."

But there is "The Promise That Lives." It is the American democracy. Inspired by the high examples of ancient Greece—the philosophy of her greatest thinkers, the wisdom of her greatest leaders—and warned by her failure, can our Democracy learn the lessons which antiquity teaches?

Mr. Cousins believes that the problem of the world today is, on a greatly enlarged scale, the problem of the ancient Greeks or the problem of the American states before the adoption of the Constitution. It is the problem of union. The two most imperative words today are "interrelationship" and "interdependency." The world is an entity. It has been made so by economic and cultural forces which can not be stemmed. We are going to have unity of some kind. The question is whether world association "will be attempted through organization or subjugation."

The world is being given another chance. It must heed—America, most of all, must heed—the warning of Edmund Burke, who wrote: "When bad men combine, the good must associate; else they will fall one by one, an unpitied sacrifice in a contemptible struggle."

WILLIAM HABBERTON

University of Illinois

INDOCTRINATION FOR AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. By Benjamin Floyd Pittenger. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Pp. xi, 110. \$1.25.

This courageous book, by a dean at the University of Texas, comes to grips with the troublesome problem of "indoctrination" for democracy. The teacher who has been reared in the tradition of "scientific method" and "objective research" and is troubled that the opponents of democracy use these things to divide democratic minds and weaken democratic morale, will find his answer here.

"Is the deliberate education of the young people of a democracy to be free men and women in a free society undemocratic?" The springboard of the argument is a reexamination of the word "indoctrination" and an inquiry into why it has become a horrid term in the educator's lexicon. He states his proposition thus: "Indoctrination for democracy implies that there are democratic doctrines which shall be taught. It assumes for democracy a definite and teachable ideology. Unless such an ideology exists, it is futile to propose indoctrination in it. If it exists, it should be inculcated."

After an examination of some generally accepted foundation principles of American democracy, the author ventures to name the commonly accepted tenets of the faith as: (1) the belief in the essential equality of all human beings, (2) the faith in social progress through compromise, (3) belief in equal opportunity for all, and (4) faith in human freedom to pursue the truth. These—the persistent verities—he says are what we want American teachers to indoctrinate for: these are the basic values of the free democratic society.

The classroom teacher might even begin to wonder if these things are to be taught only in American schools. For surely our own pursuit of the arts of free men we shall gladly share with the peoples of all other nations and races in the fight for a free world.

CHARLES MERRIFIELD

Cambridge, Massachusetts

MY WORTH TO THE WORLD: STUDIES IN CITIZENSHIP. By Louise I. Capen and D. Montfort Melchior. (Enl. ed.) New York: American Book, 1942. Pp. xiv, 603. \$1.80.

This latest edition of a well-known civics text makes a good background for a one-year course in the subject at the ninth-grade level. While emphasizing the importance of the individual to society, it covers a wide range of activities and institutions with which the young citizen comes in contact. Topics such as health, crime, labor, the organization of government, economic situations, and world citizenship are all considered from the standpoint of the democratic principles which are involved. At the beginning of each chapter there is a "chapter message" which emphasizes the important points in the discussion. In many cases the paragraphs are followed by analytical questions which focus the attention of the pupil on the major points. Several chapters contain a summary or review which serves to emphasize or clarify the principles to be taught. The last chapter which deals with responsible citizenship was not contained in several earlier editions and is a distinct addition. It sets forth a series of worthwhile ideas on the development of personality, the adjustment of youth to society, and the challenge to young people to plan a useful life and aid in solving the problems of democratic living.

Several features of the text are unusual and may appeal to the instructor who wishes a large number of suggestions for student activity. At

the end of each chapter is a notebook—workbook containing the teaching techniques which are usually part of a separate workbook. By this system the authors have avoided the extra expense and difficulty which may attend the purchase and use of a workbook. All of the assignments suggested may be carried out in any available type of notebook. There are also several case studies, emphasizing important points which may be used as a basis for discussion. While some of these are too brief to challenge thought, the majority are sufficiently detailed to require careful consideration. Still another idea is contained in the bulletin-board suggestions accompanying each topic. The reading lists are adequate and are divided into three sections: one for the recreational reading of the student, a second for his working bibliography, and a third contains a working bibliography for the instructor. Discussion questions abound as well as topics for written work, materials for individual consideration, and charts to be completed. The book is illustrated in half tones, sketches, cartoons, and action-line pictures all of which are related to the topic under consideration.

A comparative study indicates relatively little

change between this enlarged edition and the earlier editions with the exception of the chapter on responsible citizenship. In some cases, as in the first chapter, vocabulary lists have been expanded, case studies slightly changed, and a few additions made to the reading lists. The tone of the text and the basic principles remain unchanged.

It is a little unfortunate, perhaps, that the authors have not taken advantage of the wealth of material for and concerning youth which has been evolved through the various surveys or through the government divisions of the NYA and CCC. Instructors of the lower sections may find the reading lists too difficult and the vocabulary lists too extensive. They may also desire more action than is provided for in the discussion, listing of ideas, or the large amount of suggested writing. Little use seems to be made of field trips, surveys, interviews, or that close cooperation between the community institutions and the school which can make Civics a dynamic study.

On the whole the text is valuable for its academic background and for orienting the student as he approaches each phase of his investigation of the institutions of social living. When sup-

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plemented by actual experience, the text should give an adequate foundation for further courses in the senior high curriculum.

MILDRED P. ELLIS

Senior High School
Framingham, Massachusetts

OUR CHANGING GOVERNMENT. By Samuel Steinberg and Lucian Lamm. (1942 ed.) Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1942. Pp. xx, 541. \$1.80.

In this annual revision of the book that was originally copyrighted in 1936, the authors have made an attempt to bring the study of civics down to the present day, and, in doing so, have recognized the dynamic nature of that subject, which at one time gave all or nearly all of its emphasis to the structure of the federal government. This book is intended as a basal textbook for senior high schools and appears to be well adapted to the grade level it seeks.

More space is devoted to the federal government than to other single topics, but attention is also given to state and local government, financing government, the development of democracy in America, and democracy's crisis. The book was printed late enough to include mention of Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor in December, 1941, and there is a final chapter on democracy's crisis; yet there seems to be the weakness that the challenge to democracy is not presented as vigorously as it should be. The outstanding problem of our democracy today needs more emphasis and, along with that, the student may wonder what he can do *himself* to help promote the democratic ideals and to further American preparedness. As one reads about our government, he should be able, not only to be informed, but also to know how he can effectively participate.

Another element in the book that is weak is the treatment of the subject of international co-operation. These last few years especially have demonstrated the need for developing world-mindedness. Students should receive some understanding of other peoples and their governments and how all can get along together in this world.

An interesting chapter is entitled "What Is Your Attitude?" It lists one hundred controversial statements which can form the basis for class discussions. At the close of all the chapters, also, are numerous thought-provoking questions that can be utilized for similar purposes. For teachers who are eager to obtain pamphlets for supplementary reading, Appendix I offers some tips, although they are not too numerous. How-

ever, a lengthy list of book references followings in Appendix II.

The book is well-organized and clear. It does not go into too advanced treatment for high school pupils and, sometimes, may even be too brief. However, such brevity does offer opportunities for pupils to round out their knowledge by reading elsewhere. There are numerous pictures, charts, graphs, and cartoons to illustrate the subject matter. This volume, in general, should be quite satisfactory as a textbook.

K. C. FRIEDMAN

North High School
Minneapolis

YOUR FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE. By James C. O'Brien and Philip P. Marenberg. New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1940. Pp. xvi, 501. \$2.50.

Your Federal Civil Service is a book which should be of interest to students and the laymen who wish to know more about this increasingly important aspect of public service. It should be particularly helpful to anyone who has any intention of entering the federal civil service.

The book is comprehensive in that it covers the subject from filling out the application to retirement benefits. The treatment is by no means exhaustive as, indeed, it could not be in a book of this length, but it is sufficiently detailed to give the prospective applicant a great deal of valuable information about physical requirements in various fields, the nature of the written and oral examinations, education and experience ratings, the type of personal investigation which is made of applicants for certain confidential positions, certification to the job, the right of appeal, and other important matters.

The language is simple, non-technical, and clear. In order to leave no doubt as to certain points, the authors have given many illustrations where perhaps a brief explanation with one illustration would suffice. Such is the case in the chapter "Meeting the Deadline Date." However, meeting the deadline is so important, and failure to do so leads to the disappointment of so many applicants, that the use of so much space to make clear one point is probably justified.

The book is factual and not theoretical. While this might make it less useful to the student desiring a critical study of the federal civil service, it makes it much more understandable for the average reader. Senior high school students can read it with understanding and with profit, particularly if they have in mind working for the

United States government at some time in the future. If a copy is placed in the high school or social studies classroom library, its pages will probably be well-thumbed before long.

NEWTON RODEHEAVER

High School
Brookline, Massachusetts

MODERN ECONOMICS. By James F. Corbett and Minna Colvin. (Rev. ed.) New York: Macmillan, 1940. Pp. x, 591. \$1.80.

Modern Economics is a discussion text covering the field of economics. It consists of an introductory chapter, "Looking Backward," three large parts involving four or five units or chapters, and a conclusion, "The Rise of a New Social Order." Two of the large parts, "The Profit System" and "Social Control of a Complex Society," retain the same titles as the original edition; while the third part, "A New Deal," has become "We the People." The units of which this third part is composed remain the same and deal with such topics as "The Consumer and His Income," "Workers," "Property Owners," and "Tax Policies."

While Part I, "The Profit System," and Part II, "Social Control of a Complex Society," retain their former titles, some of their units have been renamed and some large blocks of material within units have been shifted to other units. For example, a section on banking in Unit 8, "Government and Banking," was formerly in Unit 7, "Our Credit Economy."

The book has been enlarged and expanded and the material has been brought up to date. It is a formidable text and is almost encyclopaedic in the amount of material it covers.

In many chapter units the fact questions and discussion questions follow divisions within the chapter, a rather confusing plan. There are no suggestions for pupil activities. Among the best features of the book are the numerous, well-selected, and critically annotated references at the end of each chapter. The book should appeal to the better student but not to the average high school pupil.

CAROLINE E. E. HARTWIG

Laboratory School
University of Missouri

OUR CHANGING SOCIETY: ITS SOCIAL, CIVIC, AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS. By Paul H. Landis. Boston: Ginn, 1942. Pp. xx, 488. \$1.76.

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their problems and necessary adjustments to fit our changing society. Our present social order must cope with its responsibility to the delinquent child, the criminal, the sickly, and the mentally deficient. Leisure time is no longer just a personal but also a civic concern.

Part III shows the student how, by facing the problems of today and trying to solve them, we can also plan for the future.

Of course, no textbook covering so broad a scope can give us much more than an overall picture of the problems. At the conclusion of each chapter Professor Landis gives a "review" in the form of thought-provoking questions. He also suggests well-chosen problems and activities that should enhance the student's interest and promote interesting and educational discussions.

Furthermore, he also gives valuable supplementary reading for both student and teacher. In the back of the book he includes a glossary of more than two hundred words. He not only defines them, but gives examples.

Professor Landis' approach to these problems differs from that of most other texts hitherto written upon the subject. He stresses the causes of the problems and their effects upon us.

The text is so interestingly written that it can be used by any age group of the secondary level and enlarged upon according to need. It is well-illustrated with ample sociographs, charts, pictures, cartoons, and maps. These in themselves will give the student an excellent idea of the problems facing us today.

PAUL R. BUSEY

Bloom Township High School
Chicago Heights

PROGRESS AND EDUCATIONAL PERSPECTIVE. By Edgar W. Knight. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. xv, 148. \$1.50.

This little book is volume fourteen of the Kappa Delta Pi lecture series. The person who reads it thoughtfully, appreciatively, and approvingly will probably conclude that there has been no progress; that such progress as has been made is wholly mechanical and materialistic; that the progress of science has been antithetical to cultural progress; that reformers, progressives, and optimists have exerted a baleful influence upon society; that the idea of a science of education is preposterous; that the primary function of education in America is and has been to raise the earning capacities of students; that education has failed to fulfill most of its promises; that the

vast increase in school attendance was probably a misfortune; that Americans boast and bluster in prosperity and whine in adversity; that if Americans ever had any educational perspective they have lost it; that the preparation of curricula is a fad and a delusion; that the teacher's function should never be changed or enlarged; that the study of community life and current problems by pupils is silly; that the profession of education is little better than a fraud; that the history of education is a gloomy record of error and futility; that when a teacher feels pedagogically discouraged he should read the *Meditations* of Marcus Aurelius; and that dead men were smarter than anyone alive.

The book is nicely printed but it has no index.

EDGAR B. WESLEY

University of Minnesota

FREE LEARNING. By Elizabeth Buchanan Cowley. Boston: Bruce Humphries, 1941. Pp. 334. \$3.00.

This is a source book in the history of American education. The materials are drawn mainly from the constitutions, laws, and messages of the governors of the states of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and California. There is an introductory chapter of five pages and a concluding one of two. Each of the remaining four chapters is devoted to quotations of original materials from one of the four states. These states were chosen because the author believes that the educational development in each of them has been especially significant.

No more than two pages of each of these four chapters are used to introduce extensive transcriptions of original materials. The fact that explanations of the significance of quotations seldom occur places the task of organization and interpretation almost entirely upon the reader. Although the quoted materials are selected to tell the story of three hundred years of educational history, "attention has been focused upon one decade [1830-1840], with such accounts of periods that preceded or followed as were required to give adequate settings" (p. 12).

The author of this volume did not succeed in the laudable object of presenting a "brief and vivid" account of the development of the American system of free learning with more appeal for readers outside college walls than the histories of education "written by college professors." The book is not useful for collateral reading in secondary schools. Teachers of the social studies may find it as useful in their own preparation

of units upon the place of education in American life as *Readings in Public Education in the United States*, by Edward P. Cubberley. For the university student of the history of American education the collection will be convenient.

The author merits praise for contributing to the present effort to increase the average citizen's understanding of the rise of the American public school. Moreover, Miss Cowley's book provides the occasion for an analysis of the types of materials about educational history needed for the general reading of adults, and for use in secondary schools. It contains sources of value for the preparation of such volumes as that of *Our Schools*, by Howard Cummings and Everett B. Sackett (Harper, 1939. \$1.40), a book about American education and its history which high school students can read with interest and profit.

CLAUDE EGGERTSEN

University of Michigan

EDUCATION IN THE TERRITORIES AND OUTLYING POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES. By Charles F. Reid. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xxv, 593. \$3.85.

This book gives the history of the interest of this country in Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, American Samoa, Guam, and the Panama Canal Zone, discusses the social, economic, and political conditions prevailing in those possessions, and indicates how these conditions have directly and indirectly influenced public and private schools in those areas. Attention is also drawn to a comparison of education there with education in the forty-eight American states; and at the end of each chapter definite recommendations are made for the improvement of public education in these territories and outlying possessions.

This is a valuable book in comparative education and should be helpful also to school administrators, supervisors, and teachers, especially in the field of social studies, in the United States. In the light of present conditions throughout the world the volume is a useful source book of information. It should be studied in connection with the report by the President's Advisory Committee on Education, *Public Education in the Territories and Outlying Possessions*, which appeared in 1939. The author of the present volume participated in the preparation of that volume and earlier had made a study of the public schools in the Canal Zone. He has spent many years in

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EDGAR W. KNIGHT

University of North Carolina

TEACHING THE SLOW LEARNER. By W. B. Featherstone. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii, 100. 75c.

In a few pages, but in an interesting style, Professor Featherstone has presented all of the important ideas every teacher should have about how to identify and how to serve the needs of the so-called "difficult" pupil. "Slow-learningness" is taken to mean mostly slowness in learning intellectual things, but in his definition of a slow learner the author points out the vast array of individual differences in the many capacities to be found in any group of boys and girls.

Especially worthwhile are the writer's remarks on popular superstitions about slow learners. He says, "There is little, if any, basis in fact for assuming that the whole population can be sorted into two such groups (i.e., slow learning and normal) . . ." In my own practice, ranging over the past twenty years, I have often heard it assumed that slow learners would be better off and could do better in manual activities. Professor Featherstone calls attention to the fact that the slow learner's experiences in school and out tend to make him have so much of an inferiority complex that he does no better than normal pupils in manual activity situations, but often does worse, due to his lack of imagination, poorer muscular coordination, and general state of emotional frustration from past failures in the intellectual fields.

The summary of the first chapter is so significant that I am taking the liberty of quoting it in full:

. . . the slow learner is a person very much like the rest of humanity. He is not a 'type,' but rather a variant of one type. He has more or less of the common characteristics of all other pupils in school—the same basic needs, the same ways of learning, and about the same amount of variability and unevenness of abilities and other resources. Being by definition somewhat less intellectual, he does not reason or learn to manage abstractions and symbols as well as the average. In most other respects, however, it is very difficult to tell the difference between an average child and a slow learner. Very few of the important differences can be discerned by the eye. Much more must be

known before one can properly conclude that an individual is a slow learner.

After telling of methods for locating slow learners, Professor Featherstone discusses the two attacks upon the problem of what to do with them once they have been identified as such. Should they be placed in a special group of slow learners or should they be kept with those of their own age and be given special help according to their individual needs and capabilities? Of segregation he says that its many disadvantages make it advisable to avoid this practice if possible. He also gives a distinct warning about the ill-effects of non-promotion.

Any teacher who reads the chapter on "Guiding the Activities" will be helped to do a better job with any group of boys and girls. Since every group of pupils is apt to have one or more slow learners and since all normal pupils have some of the handicaps of most of the slow learners, teachers should be aware of the many ways in which children learn. The material in this chapter is specific, concrete, and usable in any classroom situation. While the author points out that most slow learners need more of certain kinds of experiences than most normal pupils, it should not be overlooked that most teachers are prone to satisfy themselves that they have done a good job of teaching a normal group when they have led them to take part in only the intellectual activities called for in any unit of study.

Of the fundamental processes for the slow learner, the writer says, "Richness of experience with a few fundamental processes and concepts is to be preferred to a 'smattering of ignorance' about many things that have no utility and no meaning for the slow learner." One wonders if this is not just as true for all pupils!

The final chapter, "How to Help the Slow Learner with His Personal Problems," contains suggestions basic to the success of any teacher of slow learners, either in segregated groups or when they are found in smaller numbers in normal groups. One of the chief reasons the slow learner is what he is will almost always be found in his out-of-school background. Socially and economically less fortunate families are usually less competent in providing the basic requirements of their children for physical well-being and all-round development. There is apt to be more general turmoil in the home background of the slow learner. All slow learners do not come from underprivileged neighborhoods, but more of them do so than from the "better" families.

In summing up the special treatment in guid-

ance, help in mastery of the fundamental processes, and general education for living in a democratic society for the slow learner, it seems to be Professor Featherstone's thesis that the slow learner is an American, hence he is entitled to his just share of American education just as are the so-called normal children. His needs must be taken care of, his potential abilities trained for a useful, contributing life in the community, and his sense of "belonging" must be as carefully cultivated as that of anyone else. To do less for him is to ignore the ideal of all American education, "education of all the children of all the people."

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